DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 156 097 HE 010 238

TITLE Education for the 70's and Beyond.
INSTITUTION Pittsburgh Univ., Pa.
PUB DATE 29 Mar 77
NOTE 260p.; Proceedings of the 3rd annual colloquium of the Council of Graduate Students in Education (March 1977)

EDRS PRICE MF-$0.83 HC-$14.05 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS Attribution Theory; Conference Reports; *Educational History; *Educational Theories; Educational Trends; *Futures (of Society); Higher Education; Integration Litigation; Labor Unions; *Moral Development; Nursing; Public Schools; Racial Integration; Reading; School Attendance Legislation; Supervisory Training; Teacher Attitudes; *Teacher Education; Technical Institutes; Television
IDENTIFIERS *Kohlberg (Lawrence); Labor Colleges

ABSTRACT

The papers include: a history of education at Carnegie Institute, 1897-1976 (Julie Agar); forming the structure of a new society within the shell of the old, a study of three labor colleges and their contributions to the American labor movement (Richard J. Altenbaugh); reflections on the relevance of attribution theory to the educational process (Ronald K. Barrett); the dynamics of compulsory school attendance (Richard J. Cooper); application of Kohlberg's theory of cognitive moral development to teacher education (Fred A. DiNapoli); the U.S. Supreme Court and desegregation, from Plessy to Brown and beyond (Eugene A. Lincoln); an investigation of teachers' perceptions of trained supervisors compared with teachers' perceptions of untrained supervisors (John P. McDonough); Kohlberg and moral development, what trends? (Rick Milson); historical review of collegiate nursing education (Cheryl A. Seethaler); and the case of television versus reading (Renee Serckis). (MSE)

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Council of Graduate Students in Education

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EDUCATION FOR THE 70'S AND BEYOND

PREFACE

This collection of the papers of the Third Annual Colloquium of the Council of Graduate Students in Education represents some of the work of the students of the School of Education of the University of Pittsburgh.

The purpose of the annual COLLOQUIUM is to provide graduate students an opportunity to formally present, discuss, and receive criticism on their recent research. In addition, the COLLOQUIUM brings together the students of the diverse programs of the School of Education for a sharing of their research and ideas. The papers reflect the different interests and approaches of the different disciplines which are part of the School of Education. The members of the Council of Graduate Students in Education believe it is important for the professional development of graduate students that they have an opportunity to gather outside the classrooms and publicly demonstrate their academic skills.

The theme of the Panel Discussion of the Third Annual Colloquium was "The Purposes and Goals of the School of Education." Dr. Barbara Dompa, School Librarian of the Hempfield Area School District, Dr. Eugene Lincoln, Associate Professor of Education at the University of Pittsburgh, and Helen Hazi, a graduate student in Curriculum and Supervision at the University of Pittsburgh presented papers as part of the panel discussion. The panel discussion was followed by the presentations of the papers. The four concurrent sessions were moderated by Gregory LeRoy, Cellestine Cheeks, Richard Cooper, and Stan Yoder. These meetings were well attended and the presenters created lively discussion among the students and faculty. The final part of the COLLOQUIUM was the citation of outstanding faculty members of the School of Education.

The Council of Graduate Students in Education would like to express its sincere thanks for the individuals who made the COLLOQUIUM possible, especially the Colloquium Committee:

Qamar Baloch

Cellestine Cheeks

Richard Cooper

Tom Gemmell

John Guisti

Helen Hazi

Gregory LeRoy

John McDonough

C. Dianne Colbert - Advisor

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A History of Education At Carnegie Institute

1897-1976

Julie Agar
2628 Cathedral of Learning
December 11, 1976

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

My deep appreciation goes to the staff of the Museum of Fine Arts for their interest, support and time. I would particularly like to thank: Leon Arkus, Director of the Museum of Fine Arts, Anthony N. Landreau, Director of Education, Thomas Fralic, Docent Department, and James Kosinski, Director of Adult Education.

My thanks goes also to Thomas J. Lacey, Department of Art Education, University of Pittsburgh for his support and guidance.

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INTRODUCTION

Subsequent to tracing the development of educational programs at Carnegie Institute, I surveyed current prevailing attitudes on the function of the museum as an institution of education and current philosophies on education as a role of the museum. The focus of this paper concentrates on the school/museum relationship for the school-age child. Where applicable, outreach programs of significance are described.

Interviews with museum staff have revealed the particular concerns and interests of the Museum of Art, Carnegie Institute in museum education.

This limited survey on the current prevailing attitudes on the function of the museum as an institution of education has disclosed several pertinent needs: the need for better communication between schools and museums in the area of curriculum, the need for communication between museum educators and programming, and the need for further research and evaluation of educational programs in museums.

Attitudes on the Function of the Museum as an Institution of Education

The American Association of Museums, for the purposes of the professional accreditation of museums, has adopted the following definition:

> A museum is defined as an organized and permanent non-profit institution, with professional staff, which owns and utilizes tangible objects, cares for them and exhibits them to the public on some regular schedule.[1]

Richard Grove of the Arts and Humanities Program, Office of Education stated:

> Anyone who sets out to talk about museums is instantly faced with the task of trying to figure out just what sort of creature this is. It is a nearly unique peculiarity. A hospital is a hospital. A library is a library. A rose is a rose. But a museum is Colonial Williamsburg, Mrs. Wilkerson's Figure Bottle Museum, the Museum of Modern Art, the American Museum of Natural History...This diversity is, in a sense strength.[2]

Turning to the educational responsibility of the museums, Edgar P. Richardson, Director of the Winterthur Museum has stated:

> ...the educational responsibility of museums is vast, extremely complex, and touches every aspect of our intellectual life. It cannot be met only by either popular education or by children's education. It presents great challenges to museum staff...[3]

He cited the Pittsburgh Board of Education which sponsors classroom visits to Carnegie Institute as an example of a program sponsored jointly by the museum and local education department. In addition to programs oriented toward the school, Patterson described classes and courses for elementary age children designed to supplement the work of the school. He felt that the most typical areas would be bound in studio art work or natural history subjects.[1] It is of interest to note that Carnegie Institute has long offered courses of study in both of these areas.

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[1] American Association of Museums, Museums: Their New Audience, Washington, D.C.: American Association of Museums, July 1972, p. 28.

[2] Richard Grove in Larrabee (ed.), Museums and Education, p. 79.

[3] Edgar P. Richardson in Larrabee (ed.) Museums and Education, p. 23.

Bartlett H. Hayes, Jr. focuses his attention on the relationship of art exhibitions to education, he stated that the more successful programs shared by schools and museums are those directly related to class work. He indicates that this opportunity occurs most fruitfully at grade levels where the broad historical or cultural studies occur. For example, fifth or sixth grade for geography and world history in seventh grade.[2] He concludes by saying"... these are areas where museum objects provide evidence of the character of the subject under study."[3]

In the area of secondary schools and museums, Ruth Zuelke states, "I would like to see curriculum experts from the field of art education working with experts in the museums."[4] She sees as an area of prime importance the ways to discover the best means for schools and museums to work together in making their resource materials mutually available.[5]

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[1] Edgar P. Richardson in Larrabee (ed.), Museums and Education, p. 22.

[2] Bartlett H. Hayes, Jr. In Larrabee (ed.), Museums and Education, p. 55.

[3] Ibid.

[4] Ruth Zuelke in Larabee (ed.), Museums and Education, p. 89.

[5] Ibid.

Barbara Y. Newsom, project director, The Council on Museums on Education in the Visual Arts relates her point of view:

> Museums, of course, have always been important educational resources in this country...Now, perhaps more than ever before, these institutions are being regarded by the education officialdom as part of the educational system. The individual inquiry for which museums are so well equipped is the subject of growing speculation and research. Thus, museum educators and the planners and theorists of the schools and colleges of education have even more reason to put their heads together.[1]

The author describes the basic purposes of The Council on Museums and Education in the Visual Arts. The first is to assemble a series of case studies in a variety of educational areas in which art museums are operating and the second is to help museums educators enlarge the range and raise and level of discourse with each other.[2]

Education in the Art Museum. the proceedings of a Conference of Art Museum Educators held in Cleveland, Ohio in 1971 studied the status of education in the museum. In a questionnaire sent out before the Conference, 65% of the museums replying indicated that the major priority was involvement with the elementary level, 11% with the secondary level and 5% related to the college level.[3] A summary of the main points in answer to the question; "What should the educational priorities of your museum be five years from now? include:

(a) External movement towards a community resource centre servicing a broading segment of the community with a growing adaptation and awareness of the present and future social needs of the urban environment. Included in the resource centre

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[1] Barbara Y. Newsom, "Bridging the Information Gap", Museum News, Vol. 52, No. 7, (April 1974), P. 32.

[2] Ibid. p. 31.

[3] Education in the Art Museum, The Association of Art Museum Directors, 1972 P. 42.

> were more emphasis on community needs, displays of community creativity, digs, trips, library facilities, and the traditional lectures, films, and concerts.
>
> (b) More imaginative, varied educational curriculum within the museum. Tours more challenging to the individual, more reflective with follow-ups to docent tours. Many expressed desire for one permanent collection that could show overall chronological survey of artistic styles. Others stressed more emphasis on contemporary art.
>
> (c) Better co-ordination and communication with schools. Reorganization to include tours on a more regular basis, more related to school are curricula; consultant work with art departments in schools; more emphasis on exhibitions of students' work; circulating exhibitions for schools with transportation problems.
>
> (d) More contemporary audio-visual media. Greater sharing of innovations and experiments, and sharing evaluations of the success of these programs among museum education departments.
>
> (e) Specialized teacher training, staff expansion, continual evaluation and up-dating of teaching techniques, more professional working conditions.[1]

In his doctoral dissertation, Rex Terry Lohmann focussed attention on the school/museum program. He raises several important points in this relationship.

> Despite the fact that the museum profession has generally accepted the idea that one of its basic functions and responsibilities is education, the public is as yet largely unaware of what that means or even that it is an important issue... The schools must act, museums can act and together they can virtually transform at least some aspects of public education in a time of crisis.[2]

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[1] Education in the Art Museum, The Association of Art Museum Directors, 1972, p. 41.

[2] Rex Terry Lohmann, The Theoretical Foundations of Museum Interaction: Museums of Man's Experience and the Educational Process, unpublished dissertation, University of Pittsburgh, 1975, p. 136.

History of Education at Carnegie Institute

From its inception, as recorded in Annual Reports beginning in 1897, Carnegie Institute has shown concern for the educational aspects of its exhibits. As succeeding reports show, the two Museums have always been concerned with their role as educational institutions.

In the First Annual Report, 1897, John Beatty recorded the establishment of an Annual International Exibition. He stated: "The international character of the exhibition made it peculiarly important as an educational influence and the intent of the collection was enhanced by the fact that works, with few exceptions represent contimporaneous art."[1] From this first year, the pattern of student utilization of Carnegie Institute's resources began. Mr. Beatty reported: "Nearly all the educational institutions of Pittsburgh in which art is taught sent school parties on specially appointed days, and a number of city ward schools and public schools of the near neighborhood were represented..."[2]

In July 1897, Mr. Beatty purposed a plan to circulate an exibition of large reproductions representing industrial are objects to branch library buildings in the city. His idea was to exhibit pictures of objects made of malleable iron, textile fabrics, wood carvings, measured drawings of furniture, porcelain, etc. He wished to have the museum sell duplicates at cost to students and mechanics to serve as models for the industrial arts.[3]

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[1] First Annual Report, 1897, Carnegie Institute, p. 4.

[2] *Ibid*. P.5.

[3] Ibid.

In the report he states:

> This would at once bring to our young artisans the wealth, in design and construction, of the entire world, and should, in time, exert a great influence upon our city as a manufacturing center. It is in exactly this direction that our city has failed to encourage art education, forgetting that in influence of this kind would tend to raise the standard of many of our manufacturers.[1]

The reports through 1900 chart the growth and expansion of Carnegie Institute in its early years. In 1899, the total attendance for the Annual International was 240,000 people. The total estimated population of the city was 298,620 people and the director considered the attendance an "unprecedented showing".[2]

The Pittsburgh Public Schools were invited to hold an exhibit of drawings and artwork in the main and east galleries during the spring of 1901. The exhibit was coordinated under the direction of the Supervisor of Art Instruction in the Pittsburgh Public Schools.[3]

Director Beatty describes in 1901 the first formal cooperation between the Institute and the Pittsburgh Public Schools.

> Early in November, a committee from the Pittsburgh High Schools, comprising five members of the faculties of the Academic and Normal Departments called at the institute for the purpose of asking me to give the teachers and advanced students of Pittsburgh Schools informal talks in the galleries about the paintings in the exhibit. As a result of this conference, a sub-committee was appointed by the faculties and a comprehensive schedule was prepared which brought to the Institute, twice a week of the remaining period

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[1] John Beatty, Report to the Directors, July 1897.

[2] Third Annual Report, Director of Fine Arts, April 1, 1899.

[3] Fifth Annual Report, Director of Fine Arts, March 31, 1901. p.5.

> of the exhibition, large parties of educators and advanced students for the purpose of studying the paintings. This is the first attempt to secure to the pupils of the city schools and art students generally, the benefits of any direct instruction concerning the works exhibits at the Institute. Through these lectures, the pupils of the city schools were brought directly into contact with the works of the painters of the day and the teachers still further stimulated interest by requiring pupils in the public schools to make sketches of paintings and write descriptive essays.[1]

It is interesting to note that many teachers today use the same kind of "follow-up activities" as were used in 1901.

Again in 1902, the drawings of pupils from the Pittsburgh Public Schools were exhibited. Visits by school children to the Sixth Annual International Exhibition were cooperatively planned by the Museum and the Superintendant of Schools. Teachers and advanced students toured in groups of one to one hundred per lecture. Mary S. Garretson, Superintendent of Instruction in Drawing in Allegheny City Schools arranged for similar visits for teachers.[2]

Although there is no documentation that proves whether or not Director Beatty's proposal in 1897 to circulate photographs of industrial arts objects was ever adopted, his next plan, submitted to the Directors of the Museum in 1902 was accomplished by 1903. He states in the report:

> ...a plan has long been contemplated looking to an exceptionally close union of the educational work in the public schools with that of work being done by the Department of Fine Arts through its permanent collection of painting and statuary. This plan contemplates, first, circulation of complete sets of large, framed photographs representing the permanent collection of paintings and sculpture through

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[1] Fifth Annual Report, Director of Fine Arts, March 31, 1901, pp. 8-9.

[2] Sixth Annual Report, Director of Fine Arts, March 31, 1902, p.3.

the schools of Pittsburgh, for exhibition and study.[1]

As further evidence of the early cooperation between the Museum and the public schools, Mr. Beatty reports that five hundred catalogs were sent to the principals of the public schools for distribution amoung the advanced pupils "with a view of placing directly in their hands a list of Institute resources of art interest during the vacation.[2] On September 21, 1903, the prints of the permanent collection were lent to Mrs. M.E. Van Wagonen, Supervisor of Art in the Pittsburgh Public Schools for circulation and study in the schools. Here Mr. Beatty describes the collection:

> The set consists of finished reproductions of 46 paintings of various sizes, uniformly mounted and framed and sufficiently large to give details. Each bears a label, stating title and artist and gives brief biographical notes, including a list of celebrated works. The photographs consitute a beautiful and instructive collection. The chief value of this school work lies in the fact that the minds of pupils are peculairly open to instruction.[3]

In succeeding years, additional copies were made to serve Allegheny Public Schools. Each year they were updated to include new acquisitions. The director estimated that the sets would be studied by more than sixty-five thousand students and one thousand four hundred teachers in one year.[4] Mrs. Van Wagonen's report to Mr. Beatty was included in the 1905 Annual Report.

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[1] Sixth Annual Report, Director of Fine Arts, March 31, 1903, p. 14.

[2] Ibid. p. 15

[3] Ibid. p. 16

[4] Nineth Annual Report, Director of Fine Arts, March 31, 1905, p. 10.

Mrs. Van Wagonen writes: "The work has brought the schools into closer relationship with the galleries, and many pupils who have never had any desire to view the exhibit, have been most anxious to visit the galleries during the annual exhibition; which is, indeed, a most valuable consideration.[1]

During 1906, the sets continued to circulate throughout the schools. A series of informal lectures was given for all instructors in the department of art in the public schools and also for all teachers of ward schools in the two cities. (Pittsburgh and Old Allegheny)[2]

In 1912, the director states that "...a series of informal talks are to be given before students of the public schools, by some one conversant with art and familiar with the painters who are represented in the collection of photographs now being circulated throughout the schools."[3] He further notes that attendance was exceptional at the Annual International Exhibition. "...it is interesting to note that students from Carnegie Institute of Technology, University of Pittsburgh, public schools; alone or accompanied by instructors were to be seen in the gallery every day. This is the best possible evidence of the educational value of the work being done..."[4]

"On May 31, 1913, the education work of the Department of

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[1] Tenth Annual Report, Director, of Fine Arts, March 31, 1907, p. 7.

[2] Ibid. p. 9

[3] Sixteenth Annual Report, Director of Fine Arts, March 31, 1912 p. 8.

[4] Ibid.

Fine Arts was taken up with renewed activity, the aim being to increase the efficiency of Carnegie Institute as an educational factor in the city of Pittsburgh and the vicinity."[1]

Alice Pulnam, a new member of the staff lists the functions and goals of the educational work:

1. Guidance and instruction offered to schools, clubs or individuals in the galleries.
2. Assembling and typing the biographical and critical notes on the painters and paintings represented in the permanent collection.
3. Lectures to women's clubs or at schools.
4. The establishment of a series of illustrated lectures on matters pertaining to the fine arts, free to children of Pittsburgh.[2]

As the educational activities of the Museum expanded, so the curriculum of the Pittsburgh Public Schools expanded and changed. With the adoption of the School Code of 1911, a reorganization took place in the schools. An art department was established with Mr. C. Valentine Kirby as the director. High school curricula were expanded to provide electives in arts and crafts. Art was included in the School Code as part of the regular course of study in the public schools. A new "Course of Study in Art: was proposed in 1917-1918. The study gave a monthly outline of what was to be done in grades one through eight. The students studied drawing as well as color and principles of design. Each month the students studied a painting by an established artist.[3] (It would seem logical to assume that the paintings studied came from the museum case collection although I cannot substantiate any direct references citing this.)

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[1] Eighteenth Annual Report, Director of Fine Arts, March 31, 1914, PP. 14-15

[2] Ibid. p. 16.

[3] Jeannine C. Meikskin, The Evolution of Education in Art In the Public Schools of the City of Pittsburgh, unpublished graduate paper, University of Pittsburgh, 1974 pp. 20-22.

On the high school level, drawing was emphasized. Drawing from nature, life drawing, with the study of human proportions, action and character of poses were some of the units of study included. Art history and appreciation was studied one day every week and color and design were included in the curriculum. Illustrations were drawn by the students from literary works and folklore stories. Other courses offered on this level were: Commercial Art, Industrial Arts, Interior Decoration, Costume Design, General Art Appreciation and a crafts course which included modeling in clay, pottery, stenciling, block printing, leather work, book-binding, metal and jewelry.[1]

During the 1914-15 year a series of talks about art entitled "The Children's Hour" were begun. The talks were illustrated by lantern slides, chalk drawings or clay modeling.[2] "The program was planned to direct the attention of the children to the collections of the Department of Fine Arts, so they might acquire a sense of Appreciation tempered with discrimination."[3] In 1916, under the direction of May Redd the attendance at these lectures increased to 3,862 students. Miss Redd noted in her report that many of the children walked from three to five miles to attend the talks. "The effect of the brief talks has been to give the children information and to form, on their part, the habit of coming to Carnegie Institute, a habit which will doubtless be continuous for many years."[4] The Children's Hour Programs for 1916 and 1917 are on the following pages. It is interesting to note that Mr. C. Valentine Kirby, Director of Art Education in the Pittsburgh Public Schools was involved in giving some of the lectures of the Children's Hour.

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[1] Meikskin, p. 22.

[2] Eighteenth Annual Report p. 16.

[3] *Ibid.*

[4] Twentieth Annual Report 1916 pp. 12-3.

The Pittsburgh Public School Visiting Program was inaugurated in 1916 with eighth grade classes from Delworth, Allen and Roosevelt Schools. They had come for an art appreciation lesson to be presented in the galleries and illustrated with the paintings, architecture, and sculpture on display, and to spend an additional period browsing through the building.[1] The tours were conducted by Euphemia Bakewell, under the general direction of Mr. C.F. Ramsey, of the Department of Fine Arts. The docents' instructions were "to stress appreciation, to give the young visitors some points of view from which to enjoy art while acquainting them with the Institute's collections; to avoid history of art, to put no emphasis on technique."[2] With some modifications, the Public School Visiting Program has continued up through 1976. For the first year's School Visiting Program the following materials were printed and distributed by the Museum of Fine Art:

Cards Announcing Docent service	2,000
School Children's Outline	1,500
Postcards of Paintings given to school children	12,500
Postcards announcing lectures and Children's Hour talks	13,275
Poster announcing Docent Service	220[3]

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[1] Twenty-first Annual Report, Director of Fine Arts, March 31, 1917 p. 22.

[2] Ibid, p. 24

[3] Ibid, p. 59.

The program for the Children's Hour for talks about art - presented in 1916.

April	3	The Sculptor and his Clay (concluded): Talk by Mr. August Zeller, of the Department of Fine Arts, Carnegie Institute.
	10	The Potter and his Clay. The first of two demonstrations and talks by Miss Mabel C. Farren, member of the faculty of the Margaret Morrison Carnegie School for Women.
	17	The Potter and his Clay (concluded), by Miss Farren.
	24	Flowers: Talk and demonstration on the artistic arrangement of flowers, by Miss May Redd, of the Department of Fine Arts, Carnegie Institute.
Dec.	1	Illustration: Chalk talk by Mr. Charles J. Taylor, Member of the faculty of the School of Applied Design, Carnegie Institute of Technology.
	8	The Pictures of the Old Stone Age: Talk by Miss May Redd.
	15	The Story of Ornament: Talk by Mr. Vincent P. Sollom, member of the faculty of the School of Applied Design, Carnegie Institute of Technology.
	22	The Christ Child in Art: Talk by Miss May Redd.
Jan.	5	How to Make our City More Beautiful: Talk by Mr. Frederick Bigger, Assistant Secretary of the Art Co-mission of Pittsburgh.
	12	Pompeii: Talk by Miss May Redd.
	19	Cheops, Builder of Pyramids: Talk by Miss May Redd.
	26	Assurbanpal and the Pictures in his Palace: Miss May Redd.
Feb.	2	The House of the Forest of Lebanon: Talk by Miss May Redd.
	9	Athens in the Time of Pericles: Talk by Mr. Frederick T. Bigger.
	16	Famous Paintings of Children: Talk by May Redd.
	23	The People and Houses of George Washington's Tome: Talk by Miss May Redd.
	26	Famous Drawings of Children and How They Were Made: Special talk by Mr. Charles J. Taylor.
Mar.	1	Rome in the Time of Augustur: Talk by Miss May Redd.
	8	The Sculptor and his Clay; Demonstration and talk by Mr. August Zeller.
	15	The Paintings of John W. Alexander: Talk by Mr. C. Valentine Kirby, Director of Art Education in the Pittsburgh Public Schools.

March 22 Beautiful Lettering: Talk by Mr. Frederick T. Bigger.

29 The Panama-Pacific Exposition: Talk by Mr. Will J. Hyett, of the Department of Fine Arts, Carnegie Institute.[1]

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[1] The Twentieth Annual Report of the Director of Fine Arts, for the Year Ending March 31, 1916, pp. 20-1.

The program for the Children's Hour for talks about art presented in 1917.

April	5	The Potter and his Clay. The first of two demonstrations and talks by Miss Mabel C. Farren.
	12	The Potter and his Clay (concluded) by Miss Farren
May	3	The Art of the American Indian. The first of two talks by Miss May Redd, of the Department of Fine Arts, Carnegie Institute.
	10	The Art of the American Indian (concluded) Miss Redd.
	17	Moving Pictures of Swedish Life. The first of two demonstrations in connection with the Swedish group of paintings included in the Founder's Day Exhibition.
Nov.	10	The Art of the Cave Man: Talk by Miss May Redd.
Dec.	15	The Sculptor and his Clay: Talk by August Zeller, of the Department of Fine Arts, Carnegie Institute.
Jan.	5	How to make Plaster Casts: Demonstration by Mr. Ross Polis, of the Department of Fine Arts, Carnegie Institute.
Feb.	2	Illustrations and How to Make Them: Chalk Talk by Mr. Charles J. Taylor, Member of the faculty of the School of Applied Design, Carnegie Institute of Technology.
	23	Child Life in Colonial Times: Talk by Miss May Redd.
Mar.	6	Child Life in Colonial Times: Talk by Miss May Redd; repeated at the Snodgrass School

Total attendance at the Children's Hours for the year, 2,081[1].

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[1] The Twenty-first Annual Report of the Director of Fine Arts, for the Year Ending March 21, 1917, p. 47.

The Pittsburgh School Board voted in 1917 to pay for the carfare of all children coming to the Institute for art instruction.[1] The Annual Report from 1918 states:

> This I believe is a more liberal plan than has been adopted in any other city. The significance of this work lies in the fact that the eighth grade students who are about to enter the high school, or upon the active duties and work of life, eagerly seek instruction and the opportunity to acquire some knowledge with reference to art and its appreciation.[2]

Each eighth grade visited the Museum's permanent collection three times during the course of the school year. The first visit was to the painting section, the second to the Hall of Architecture and the third to the Hall of sculpture. There was close cooperation between Dr. William M. Davidson, Superintendent of Public Schools, Mr. C. Valentine Kirby, Director of Art and the Department of Fine Arts, Carnegie Museum in setting up a visiting schedule and coordinating material for the tours. Over five-thousand students visited the museum under the auspices of this program.[3]

Mr. John Beatty, Director of the Department of Fine Arts described rationale of the program:

> The time these students are permitted to give to this study in the last year of their public school work is unfortunately limited. For this reason, it is our purpose in this work to teach the appreciation of art solely, by explaining in a very simple way the essential qualities possessed by all good works of art. To define the subtle qualities that belong to all good works of art and to rivet the attention of the students upon these qualities, even

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[1] The Twenty-second Annual Report of the Director of Fine Arts, for the Year Ending March 31, 1918, p. 13

[2] *Ibid.*

[3] *Ibid.*

though it be but for a comparatively brief time, is the purpose of the lessons prepared for this work.[1]

The Children's Hour series continued. although programs were curtailed in 1917-18 because of poor transportation service. Mr. Kojiro Tomita, Curator of Japanese Art, at the Museum of Fine Arts, Boston, described the life of Japanese children, and illustrated his talk with drawings and objects. The number of children who came to hear the talk was so great that the lecture had to be repeated.[2]

In the Annual Report of 1920, Robert B. Harshe, assistant director of the Museum of Arts reported that a series of cases illustrating processes in the fine and applied arts had been circulated in high schools, technical schools and branch libraries. "The Children's Museum of Art" opened on May 15, 1919. The opening exhibit consisted of modern sculpture and twenty of the cases that had been circulated in the schools. The second exhibition was a series of paintings that illustrated children's books by N.C. Wyeth. Drawings by children from Boston were the third exhibit and then, "Silhouettes". This exhibit showed silhouettes from figures on Etruscan pottery to portrait silhouettes and Edouart and iron sculptures by Hunt Diederich. The concluding exhibit was modern paintings and sculptures representing "Children in Art". Lectures in the

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[1] Twenty-second Annual Report, Director of Arts, March 31, 1918, P.14.

[2] Ibid. p. 22.

Children's Museum were related to the exhibits. For the last exhibit, Signor Moretti demonstrated the processes involved in making a statue.

As part of the school/museum program, all eighth graders who visited the museums received a printed lesson entitled, "Appreciation of Art". An essay contest was sponsored by the museum relating to the lesson on painting and there were over 1,000 entries.[1]

Miss Margaret Lee in 1923 organized the newly formed Education Section which combined science and fine arts. The eighth graders formerly had toured the Museum of Art for forty-five minutes and then had browsed through the museum by themselves for forty-five minutes. With the reorganization, the science tour was forty-five minutes and the art appreciation tour was forty-five minutes.

In a recent interview with Miss Lee, she was kind enough to trace for me the development of the Tam O'Shanters and the Palettes, which are the Saturday creative art classes for children. Miss Lee had heard of a group of gifted high school students in New York City who received special training in art at one of the high schools. She went and visited the school and felt that the program idea would be ideally suited for Carnegie Institute. In 1928, she asked supervisors from the Pittsburgh Public Schools to recommend ten or twelve students that showed "special ability" in the arts. These children would come to the museum for art classes on Saturday morning. They were in the fourth, fifth and sixth grades. The first teacher of the program was Mr. Kennedy, according to Miss Lee. The second teacher was Mr. Elmer A. Stephan, Director of Art of the Pittsburgh Public Schools. Mr. Stephan described his philosophy and the goals of art education in Volume V of Carnegie Institute Magazine, 1931-2. (See Appendix) He Stated: "It is the aim of art education in the public schools today to direct leisure time and to cultivate the taste of the masses that their money may be spent intelligently and without waste."[1]

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[1] Twenty-fourth Annual Report, Director of Fine Arts, March 31, 1920 p. 7.

According to Miss Lee, the classes were expanded in number each year until 1935 when there were six hundred children from the fifth, sixth and seventh grades. By this time, county, parochial and private schools were sending recommended students. During the Depression, when budgets were lowered drastically, the program grew. Miss Lee was able to obtain the use of the lecture hall after the class outgrew the Hall of Sculpture. It was Miss Lee's rule to never invite more students than could be taken care of. Attendance in the Music Hall was expanded to 3,200 students in 1966 [2] and by 1974 the average Saturday attendance was 3,657 students from fifth to tenth grade.[3]

Miss Lee wrote an article for The Carnegie Magazine in 1935 describing a typical class on Saturday mornings. Mr. Stephan's lecture demonstration for the morning is written with attention to all details. (See Appendix B) After the lecture demonstration the students would work on their projects. According to Miss Lee a sequence of lessons might be - drawing animals in the gallery one week, drawing imaginary animals in the lecture hall and the next and drawing animals in design the third week. Miss Lee stated that as far as she knew, the Saturday Morning Creative Art lessons were completely unique to Carnegie Institute for a long period of time.

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[1] Elmer A. Stephan, "Saturday Morning Art Classes", p. 275.

[2] Dr. Arthur C. Twomey, "Creativity and a Master Teaching Program in Art at Carnegie Institute", p. 14.

[3] Division of Education, Carnegie Institute, Annual Report, 1974 p. 13.

Thomas Fralic of the Docent Department, Museum of Art described recent changes in the Saturday Morning Classes. In September 1976, the large classes were broken up into groups of no more than twenty-five students with artist/teacher instructors. The dress code was relaxed and the students allowed to wear casual clothes for the first time. All students in the Pittsburgh Public Schools must be recommended for the classes.

Writing in The Carnegie Magazine in 1928-9, Andrey Avinoff, Director of Carnegie Museum describes the total educational program of the Museum. He mentions the special course organized for the Teachers Training School of the Board of Public Education. He states: "The aim is primarily to acquaint teachers with the fundamentals underlying the work in the various sections of the Museum... to give them an idea of how the collections and exhibitions at the Museum might be used in their own work in the public schools..."[1] (See Appendix C)

Two articles written for The Carnegie Magazine in 1936-7 further chart the growth and development of the education programs. (See Appendix D and E)

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[1] Andrey Avinoff, "Educational Work in the Museum", The Carnegie Magazine, p. 71

The Thirtieth Annual Report describes the functions of the Education Department:

> "The main province of the Education Department is not to analyze and to instruct, but to provide added enjoyment for those who visit the galleries. An art museum should not be an end in itself, a mausoleum of dead riches, but a means by which we stimulate our emotions and exercise our imagination. For the enjoyment of beauty is not at best as an erudite performance, but as an unhampered expression of emotion." [1]

In 1974, James Kosinski, Assistant Director writes in the Division of Education Annual Report:

> "The Carnegie Institute is a service organization in finest sense of the work...the Institute has become an integral part of its mind and spirit, serving its many needs-social, cultural, scientific and educationa. A central and distinctive aspect of the Institute, the resources of which respond to all of these needs, is the Division of Education. In joint cooperation with the Board of Education, it incorporates and integrates educational materials and facilities with the curriculum of the community's schools." [2]

The education programs continued to flourish during the Depression and World War II. In 1944, museum educators along with Miss Mary McKibbin, Senior Superintendant of Art in the Pittsburgh Public Schools reorganized the school tours and resources of Carnegie Institute with "relation to the child's interests, abilities and classroom activities."[3] The fifth, sixth and seventh grades each spent an afternoon at the museum. The art part of the tour was called "Who's Who and What's What at Carnegie Institute" and was designed to make children feel at home among the art collection and arouse a desire in them to return of their accord. The sixth grade visited the permanent collection and were taught new ways to look at pictures with a view of developing their powers of appreciation. The seventh grade toured the Halls of Sculpture and Architecture and the teachers were able to choose from such topics as: "Art of Early Civilizations", "The Parthenon's 2400 Exiting Years", "Florence, the City Art Built" and "Nature as an Inspiration for Creative Design".[1]

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[1] Thirtieth Annual Report, Director of Fine Arts, March 31, 1927, p.6.

[2] Division of Education Annual Report, December 31, 1974, p. 7.

[3] Forty-eighth Annual Report, Director of Fine Arts, March 31, 1944, p.9.

Carnegie Institute sponsored for many years Scholastic Magazine's National High School Art Exhibit. Virginia Donovan writing in The Carnegie Magazine describes the exhibit and judging procedures. (See Appendix E).

The Department of Fine Arts, Education Department was responsible for fourteen radio programs broadcast in 1946. The programs related to the Institute's permanent collections and special exhibitions on the weekly broadcast. The program was called, "Free to the People" and was broadcast over WCAE.[2]

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[1] Forty-eighth Annual Report, Director of Fine Arts, March 31, 1944, p. 8.

[2] Fiftieth Annual Report, Director of Fine Arts, March 31, 1946, p. 9.

During 1947 and 1948 plans were formulated to combine the educational programs of Carnegie Museum of Natural History, the Museum of Arts (MOA), and Carnegie Library into one educational department under the direction of Dr. Arthur C. Twomey. Dr. Twomey was chairman of the Education Department from 1948 until his retirement in 1974 at which time the Education Department was again divided into the Section of Education MOA, and the Section of Education Carnegie Museum of Natural History (CMNH). As Dr. Twomey states in the First Annual Report, Division of Education, "the primary objective of the Division is fundamentally to make the Carnegie Institute an integral part of the education, cultural, scientific, and civic life of the greater Pittsburgh region."[1] Through joint meetings between the supervisors of the Division of Education and seven staff members of the Pittsburgh Board of Public Education Dr. Twomey stated that "we have been able to greatly enhance the work of incorporating and integrating educational materials and facilities of the Institute to that of the school curriculum.[2]

In addition to receiving an appropriation from the Pittsburgh Board of Public Education, the Howard Heinz Endowment made a grant of $134,000 to the Division of Education for the development of educational programs.[3]

The Natural History department concentrated upon developing natural history as a vital part of the education and cultural experiences of the students who visit Carnegie Institute. The program has broadened service offered to schools and has offered the facilities of the museum to "junior Naturalists", Carnegie "Nature Club" and "High School Science Club".[1] The Division prepared exhibits and arrangements of study materials for instructional purposes in the form of loan cases that were turned over to the Pittsburgh Board of Public Education for distribution to city schools.[2]

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[1] First Annual Report - Director of Division of Education, 1949, p. 3.

[2] _Ibid_. p. 5.

[3] Ibid. p. 15.

One of the goals of the Division of Education is to build up a series of slides of art exhibitions that will be available to schools, colleges and universities on a loan basis. Slides were photographed of the two hundred and fifty paintings on exhibit in "Painting in the U.S. 1949".[2]

Since the organization of the Division of Education, it has been felt that Carnegie Institute has a great deal to offer the community by expanding its educational function in a extension program. Dr. LeRoy Blac, supervisor of the section states:

> The aims of this service to the general public are twofold: as far as children are concerned, it is to provide for their leisure time activities after school, Saturdays and during vacations and to serve children and adults in the tri-state areas with programs carried into the community itself and into institutions caring for blind, deaf and other unfortunates.[3]

Working in close collaboration with Park Naturalists of the Bureau of Recreational Activities of the Department of Parks and Recreation, the Extension carried moving pictures, lantern slides, live and mounted animals, plants, geological and other study materials into school classrooms, recreation centers, settlement houses, camps and churches. Children and adults were taken in small groups to hillsides, playgrounds, vacant lots, city streets, and zoo, conservatory, industrial plants and factories, where the principles of conversation, community spirits and out-of door living were presented.[1]

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[1] First Annual Report Director of Division of Education, 1949 p. 27.

[2] _Ibid_.

[3] _Ibid_., p. 29.

The Traveling Museum, a gift to the city of Pittsburgh by the Sarah Mellon Scaife Foundation, was made available to the Extention Section for operation in the city of Pittsburgh to carry exhibits and nature education primarily to areas lacking any natural environment. The exhibit and study materials were prepared by the Extension Staff. During its first five months, over 15,540 children and adults viewed its exhibits and listened to natural history and conversation talks.[2]

The Section of Radio and Television, under the direction of Miss Marjorie Thomas initiated a series of fifteen minute programs entitled "Open House at the Institute". The thirty-three broadcasts covered the many departments of the Carnegie Institute. "The Youth Review" on KQV radio was a series of half hour teen-age-book review programs. Each program was an original dramatization written by students with appropriate musical backgrounds. A round-table discussion followed the dramatization.[3]

Dr. Twomey states in 1950, "The incorporating and integrating of educational materials and facilities of the Institute to that of the school curriculum has been greatly enhanced by close and understanding relationships between the supervisors of the Education Division and Pittsburgh Board of Public Education."[1] The museum staff attempts to correlate the gallery lessons in both fine arts and science with regular classroom work. The teaching materials suggested are wide enough in scope to allow for considerable flexibility in presentation. On the basis of criticism and suggestions by visiting teachers as well as observation and experimentation by the Institute staff, the lessons are constantly changing and developing. In 1950, the sixth grade tour "Arts and Crafts of the American Indian" stressed man's need for beauty as its motive through directing the child to observe the Indian's ingenious use of materials such as animals, vegetables and minerals. The seventh grade units were closely integrated with the social studies and were centered around three cultures: Egyptian, Greek and Renaissance periods. The eighth grades toured the annual painting exhibit. The "Act in Nature" lessons open to all students on Tuesday and Thursday mornings attracted a total of 2,063 students.[2]

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[1] First Annual Report-Director of Division of Education, 1949, p.32.

[2] Ibid.

[3] Ibid., p. 35.

In Natural History, the students attended a lecture on "Earth's Treasures" which was designed by the United States Steel Company. Teachers were given samples of limestone, coke, and iron ore, together with a pictorial outline of steel, from ore to finished product to take back to the classroom.[3]

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[1] Second Annual Report - Director of Division of Education, 1950, p.12.

[2] Ibid. p.13.

Dr. Arthur C. Twomey stated in the 1951 Annual Report:

> "Museums with their great wealth of accumulated art and scientific treasures have grown up side by side with schools as separate agencies serving the community. But as in the schools, the democratic society demanded more of the museum; no longer could it be primarily a storehouse to possess and collect. This fundamental evolutionary change in the educational function of the Carnegie Institute has evolved in a few short years into an active demonstration of its facilities, thus to become the focal point of the civic community in art, science, and culture, not only as an individual entity but also as a co-ordinating factor in the vital and expanding cultural ecology of the greater Pittsburgh community and its environs." [1]

This statement of philosophy on the educational function of Carnegie Institute was implemented by Dr. Twomey and his staff in the ensuing years. A wide variety of programs were developed and implemented both in the museum and in outreach programs.

In Natural History, tours were planned to fit in with the curriculum of each grade. The eighth grade could choose a lecture tour on the "Transportation of All Ages:, while the sixth grade might study birds and their value to man. In the Fine Arts Museum, the sixth and eighth grade toured the 1952 International and the interpretative exhibition, "What is Abstract Art?" designed by Mrs. Katherine Kug of the Art Institute of Chicago served as an introduction to the International for high school groups.[2] Through the Extension Services of the Museum, 5,000 teachers, leaders and lay adults worked in small workshop groups in their neighborhood on conservation. They learned how to use the exhibits and collections of the museums as part of a long range program correlating their visits to the museum with history, geography and English. Part of the goal was also to reach handicapped groups such as deaf, blind and mentally retarded.[1]

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[1] Third Annual Report-Director of Division of Education, 1951, p. 17.

[2] Fourth Annual Report-Director of Division of Education, 1952, p. 6.

In 1959 a grant from the Pitcairn-Crabbe Foundation of $3,000 helped enable the Institute to carry out a program of employing retired high school teachers of high academic qualifications and wide teaching experience to act as instructors to guide students and adults through the Museum.

> "... in taking the children around the galleries and in the practical art classes, the main aim is to develop and fix the capacity of the child to see the world in visual terms so that it can survive conceptual analysis. In the galleries the instructor uses a system of questions and answers about the paintings and sculpture to stimulate the visual perceptions and to provoke a reaction."[2]

Miss Margaret Lee retired from the Museum after forty years of service. Dr. Twomey stated: "Through her deep understanding and organizational ability the creative Saturday art classes for children have progressively expanded over the years until today they are one of the country's leading creative art classes for children."[3]

Over the years many different types of tours were developed for the school children. In the spring of 1963, the seventh graders toured the 53rd Annual Association Artist Exhibition. An endeavor was made to correlate works in different crafts such as stitchery, weaving metal work and ceramics with those that the pupils practice and in their own art classes and to broaden their views for creative techniques in all fields.[1]

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[1] Fourth Annual Report-Director of Division of Education, 1953, p. 13.

[2] Eleventh Annual Report-Director of Division of Education, 1959, p. 16.

[3] *Ibid.* p. 22.

The Junior Council of the Women's Committee presented a special exhibit "The Artist and the Tree" geared for school age children. Seven devices demonstrating principles of line, form and color were designed by Robert Cothran. After viewing and manipulating the devices the children viewed an exhibit of twenty-two art works all depicting the tree. Thus, the children had the opportunity of comparing a Rembrandt etching of a tree with an abstract expressionist painting of a tree.[2]

In all of the Division of Education Annual Reports, Dr. Twomey stresses the close relationship between the Pittsburgh Public Schools Administration and the Division of Education personnel. The supervisors from the Board of Public Education and Museum personnel met several times each year to evaluate the school program in science and art. In 1968, after a meeting with Miss Ruth Ebken of the Board of Education, the art docents studied the new social studies textbooks being introduced into the elementary, junior and senior high schools. The objective was to become acquainted with Afto-American art and history. [3] It was also decided at a joint meeting between the Art Supervisor of the Pittsburgh Public Schools and the Art Supervisor of the Division of Education to introduce a new lesson on the history of sculpture for eighth grade students rather than continuing the lectures on painting. The following year's report stated that the history of sculpture tour was successful with the students.[1]

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[1] Fifteenth Annual Report-Director of Division of Education, 1963, p.8.

[2] Ibid.

[3] Twentieth Annual Report-Director of Division of Education, 1968, p.9.

In the fall of 1968, the officers of the Parent-Teachers Associations of the city schools visited the Institute and were conducted on tours by the docents of the Section of Art. The title of the program was "Have Docent, Will travel". They were able to see the subject matter presented daily to the school children and report back to their PTA organizationa.[2]

On October 2, 1972, the Division of Education, in conjunction with the Women's Committee of the Museum of Art initiated a special course for volunteer docents, as well as for students in art appreciation. Under the supervision of Mrs. Maryellen Dwyer, Supervisor of Art in the Division of Education, prospective docents took a course dealing with art from the caves of Lascaux to modern art. Quizzes, term papers, supplementary reading, discussions and a final written examination were required to complete the course.[3] In a conversation with Mr. Leon Arkus, Director, Museum of Art, he stated that he felt that the volunteer docents were doing an outstanding job in the museum. (See Appendix for current Docent Training Requirements).

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[1] Twentieth Annual Report-Director of Division of Education, 1968, p. 10.

[2] Ibid.

[3] Twenty-Fourth Annual Report-Director of Division of Education, 1972, p. 11.

In 1974 the Education Department for Carnegie Institute was divided into two separate Education Departments. Alfred Bjelland became Supervisor of Education for the Natural History Museum and Anthony N. Landreau was appointed Curator of the newly formed Section of Education of the Museum of Art. Both men work closely with the Pittsburgh Public Schools in coordinating tours.

After teaching the Saturday Art Classes for forty years, Mr. Joseph C. Fitzpatrick retired (See picture Appendix A).

For a description of current educational programs, see The Newsletter, (See Appendix G and H)

The Pittsburgh Children's Museum Project

In 1970, a group of Pittsburgh women started exploring the possibility of establishing a children's museum in their city. The Pittsburgh Children's Museum Project (PCMP) was successful in receiving sponsorship from Carnegie Institute, which included tax exempt status, community recognition, access to museum professionals, advisory services, and financial and accounting services.[1] The major aim of the project "was to provide participatory exhibits for children that would foster learning through direct involvement."[2] Primary amoung PCMP's goals was to supplement educational programs at Carnegie Institute which are geared, for the most part, to children of the fifth to eight grade levels. Museums or museum-related programs for younger children exist in many other cities and the PCMP committee felt that it was time for Pittsburgh to become part of this trend.[3]

During the summers of 1971, 1972 and 1973 more than 30,000 children had intensive contact with the exhibitions and workshops of the project and approximately 20,000 more had some form of peripheral contact. The various programs were initially designed for children in the four to eleven year age group but ultimately involved young people up to age sixteen in a sensory exploration of materials and exhibits.[4]

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[1] Gans, Susan, "PCMP", Carnegie Institute Magazine, Vol. 48, 1974, p. 233.

[2] Ibid.

[3] Ibid.

[4] Ibid. p. 235

Project director Susan Gans states:

> "PCMP wanted to develop a museum that would encourage children to be aware of man's relationship to the arts and sciences through experience-based learning. How to do that and fulfill the requirements of an accredited museum become a philosophic quandary which, coupled with the financial pressures, caused an early shift away from seeking a building and collection." [1]

In 1971, "Share and Discovery" was built by graduates from Carnegie-Mellon University on a trailer. The exhibit was an exploratorium designed in the shape of octohedrons. It contained two interior levels, each made of materials ranging from hard to soft. One level consisted of natural materials and the other, synthetics. There was a closed-circuit TV monitoring system, an observation deck outside and a ballon inflated with an air-cushioned floor- The exterior of the exhibit was divided into different surfaces. One side was covered with octohedron shaped plexiglass mirrors of different colors. Elsewhere, the exterior was covered with earth colored polyurethane. In scale, the interior provided only enough space for young children. It was not planned for active adult participation. The exhibit visited thirteen sites in the city and county, and remained at each site a week.[2]

"Light and Color" was designed in 1972 by a local architect and built by a professional exhibits construction firm. The program operated in cooperation with the City of Pittsburgh's Department of Parks and Recreation and visited forty eight sites usually for one day only.[3]

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[1] Gans, Susan, "Three Successful Programs Do Not a Museum Make", Museum News, Vol. 52, No. 8, 1974, p. 15.

[2] *Ibid*. p. 16

[3] *Ibid*. p. 17

"Light and Color" consisted of six different artificial light sources installed throughout a snake-like corridor. Upon entering the unit, children were given gels in the primary colors which they could put together in various combinations to see how color can change through the use of color itself and in isolation from specific light sources. Then they were given a piece of masonite resembling part of a puzzle which had a primary color on one side and its complement on the other. The children moved through the unit, activating light sources under foot. After experimenting with the light sources and exiting from the exploratorium the children added their masonite puzzle piece to the growing sculpture outside.[1]

After the second summer program, the executive director and committee spent time trying to re-explore its original direction and goals. Susan Gans in her evaluation of the first two exhibits stated:

> "Shape and Discovery was a more popular exhibit than Light and Color. The basic goal of providing a participatory learning experience was better achieved because of the exhibit's design. In addition, the many different facet of the design enabled children to compare likenesses and differences extensively yet without feeling stymied by complex concepts. In the case of Light and Color, identifying colors could become difficult for some children who had not learned the word to describe a color...a good deal of explanation was needed about different light sources...lacked sufficient components to keep the children interested for long periods of time. The advantage of Light and Colors was its sturdiness and scale. It permitted adults who were interested the opportunity to go throught it. Sometimes adult participation was very important, since some children felt afraid of the unknown. Parents could share the experience with their children.[2]

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[1] Susan Gans, "PCMP" Carnegie Magazine, Vol. 48, 1974, p. 234.

[2] *Ibid*. p. 236.

"Art and Environment" was utilized as a theme in 1973 for Roving Art Carts. Basic art instruction was provided in a wide range of workshop experiences utilizing "found objects" to demonstrate the inter-relationship between art and environment. Supportive visual aid, catalogues and a curriculum were also available in a portfolio on each cart. There were five carts, three similar to one horse vans, and two about the size of a vendor's cart. The program operated in cooperation with the City's Department of Parks and Recreation, visiting 56 sites from two days to a week.[1] Miss Gans, in evaluating the three projects stated: "All of the programs suffered from being short-term events. However, all three had quality. We found that having a staff especially adept at communication was more important than a staff with impressive teaching qualifications, although we aimed for persons with both abilities."[2] Little program evaluation was attempted during the first two summers. By the third summer, this was rectified by having the summer staff keep daily logs including statistical information, descriptions and projects, and general observations. Reports were made by the regular staff, which included photographic documentation. Committee members visited sites as did professionals recruited as evaluators and their observations were incorporated into the final report.[3] In her final report, Miss Gans reminds us that the programs were part of an experiment and for that reason could afford to be flexible and exploratory.[3]

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[1] Susan Gans, "PCMP", Carnegie Magazine, Vol. 48, 1974, p. 237.

[2] *Ibid*. p. 238.

[3] *Ibid*. p. 238.

Drama Section - The Extension Program

In the summer of 1968, a new phase of the Division of Education community educational program was begun under the supervision of J. Brooks Dendy, III as an exploratory project. The summer workshops, called "Creatadrama" worked with children from ages five to eighteen in three age groupings. Two original plays were produced at the end of the summer workshops.[1] A grant from the A.W. Mellon Educational and Charitable Trust enabled the Division of Education to establish an expanded program for three years. Homewood and the Hill District were the target areas for the Creatadrama Extension Program. "The art of Environmental Dramatics was brought to the classroom, gym, or auditorium, via paintings, semi-precious arti-facts from around the world, and the natural creative happenings of environmental interaction of the students with Mr. Dendy. Teachers at the schools were invited to participate in workshop sessions."[2]

The program was extended to other schools in the city as well as the surrounding suburban communities. At several of the schools, the format was poetry and drama of Afro-American writers. A festival of Original Musical Dramas was held at Carnegie Institute and in three other locations in conjunction with an art exhibition of member's art at the East Liberty and Homewood Libraries.
As Mr. Dendy sums up the first year of the program, he states:

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[1] Twentieth Annual Report-Director of Division of Education, 1968, p. 15.

[2] Ibid., p. 16.

> "Carnegie Institute provide the appropriate setting for teaching the heart of the city's youth via Environmental Drama. The list of "friends" of the Drama Section is far reaching and constantly growing. The proof was the fall sessions of in-service courses offered teachers and the opportunity to correlate to various university programs such as Library Science, Speech and Drama, Sociology and Psychology, and the Humanities and Education. The growing pains, have been great and many, but the results of our trials and errors have shown positive signs." [1]

In January 1970, the Drama Section's staff of four moved out into the community with eight structured presentations. They had developed material in the related arts covering opera, puppetry, modern Afro-American dance, classical poetry and modern literature which was structured to the levels of need of youngsters in kindergarten and grades 1 through 12. The Drama Section staff participated in remedial reading workshops with the University of Pittsburgh and Carlow College. Visits were made to nine cities to study related educational art programs. [2]

The 1960 summer activity involved sixty boys and girls from Pittsburgh Upward Bound Program. College students from Duquesne University, Carnegie-Mellon University, Slippery Rock State College and the University of Pittsburgh participated in more than twenty work sessions. [3]

During the concluding year of the program, "The Talking Theatre" was designed and a renovation of a section of the Division's ground-level area was renovated. The exhibit, "U.S.A...?...1971-72" gave a visual commentary on 125 drawings, paintings, prints, and sculptures giving a visual commentary on Afro-American art. By the end of the year, a total of 101 artists had visited Pittsburgh to participate in this exhibit. [1]

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[1] Twenty-first Annual Report-Director of Division of Education, 1969, p. 19.

[2] Twenty-second Annual Report-Director of Division of Education, 1970, p. 15.

[3] *Ibid*. p. 15.

Mr. Dendy states in his closing report:

> "In summation, the Drama Section has attempted to explore new methods of sharing the creative arts, and at the same time broaden the scope of its basic concept, Environmental Drama... which now means to the museum - the educational process by which young and old can find a fresh approach to the art of the natural sciences, the fine arts, and a means to relate the content of the museums to the community-at-large." [2]

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[1] Twenty-third Annual Report-Director of Division of Education, 1971, p. 12.

[2] Ibid. p. 13.

Dr. Selma Burke - Sculpture Outreach Program

Dr. Selma Burke was sculptress in residence at Carnegie Institute from 1970 to 1974. In a cooperative venture between the Pittsburgh Public Schools and the Division of Education of Carnegie Institute, Dr. Burke gave lecture/demonstrations in the city schools. Her program also extended into the private, parochial and suburban schools.[1] It was my privilege to observe Dr. Burke give a lecture/demonstration at Knoxville Junior High School. This observation was written for The Pittsburgh Junior League Magazine, Lights, April 1970 (See Appendix F)

Sponsored by Carnegie Institute, Dr. Burke established The Selma Burke Art Center in East Liberty. Adults and children participate in classes and workshops covering a wide range of arts and crafts including dance, drama, photography, ceramics, weaving and graphic design. The Center also sponsors concerts, plays and poetry readings as well as a Summer Enrichment Program.[1]

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[1] Seventy-ninth Annual Report, Museum of Art, December 31, 1975, P. 19.

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"FORMING THE STRUCTURE OF A NEW SOCIETY WITHIN THE SHELL OF THE OLD:"

A STUDY OF THREE LABOR COLLEGES AND THEIR CONTRIBUTIONS TO THE AMERICAN LABOR MOVEMENT

by

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Prepared for the Third Annual Education Colloquium

March 29, 1977

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INTRODUCTION

Public education and labor organizations represented two approaches to social amelioration for the American working-class during the nineteenth century. When these two options proved to only solve social problems in a piecemeal fashion, many elements of the laboring class sought a different, more encompassing solution of a new social order controlled by the workers. The proliferation of social theories among American educators and the development of a prominent radical, ideological faction within the working-class during the early part of the twentieth century further kindled this goal. An educational program formulated by workers for workers functioned as the vehicle for this social transformation.

Through case studies of three of these educational experiments--Brookwood Labor College, Commonwealth Labor College, and Work Peoples' College--this study historically examines the purpose and the programs of one phase of workers' education, the American Labor College Movement of the 1920's and 1930's.

SCHOOLING AND THE AMERICAN WORKING-CLASS

During the first half of the nineteenth century, public schools were created and promoted as a means of improving the social condition of American society through the promise of social mobility. Horace Mann's report for 1848, "Intellectual Education as a Means of Removing Poverty, and Securing Abundance," emphasized this ideal:

> Education, then, beyond all other devices of human orgin, is the great equalizer of the condition of men--the balance-wheel of the social machinery . . . it gives each man the independence and the MEANS by which he may resist the selfishness of other men. It does better than to disarm the poor of their hostility towards the rich; it PREVENTS being poor.[1]

However, was Mann's dream of social mobility realized through the schools?

In The Social Condition of Labor, E. R. L. Gould revealed, in 1893, that approximately eighty-five percent of the total income necessary to sustain the typical working-class family was earned by the father.[2] Children, for the most part, had to work in order to relieve this serious deficit. Thus, "by the early 1900's, about 1.7 million boys and girls under the age of sixteen were hired for long hours of work in the fields and factories."[3] Education, in short, represented a bad investment for the working-class family. Margaret Byington's 1910 contribution to the Pittsburgh Survey, Homestead, cogently illustrated this point:

> My impression was that the Slavs (steelworkers) did not consider education a good investment. Instead, they were anxious to secure the addition of the children's wages to an income that was truly slender enough.[4]

Worse yet, hazardous job conditions often resulted in mutilation or death for many of these young people.

For those few working-class children who could attend the public schools, the situation was not much better because these students were usually channelled into programs which did not generate social mobility. An example of this was the cooperative education movement, depicted by Paul McBride in "The Co-Op Industrial Education Experience: 1900-1917," which involved "a public school which cooperated closely with local industry in the formulation, control, and staffing of its industrial education program .... excused participating pupils to work as apprentices in local factories usually on a half time basis."[5] Rather than meet the needs of the students, this innovation served the interests of the employers:

> The industrial education movement was clearly exploitative. Students or apprentices worked for s small fraction of their worth to the company. In some cases, industry literary indentured them under bond or contract. The educators and industrialists carefully planned the academic education for the participants in the industrial program to instill obedience and docility.[6]

This program not only provided cheap labor for the factory owners, but it trained young men to be workers. The formal schools completely ignored the social mobility concept in this case. In addition, the academic segment of the school purposefully indoctrinated the working-class students to respect and to uphold the economic system which blatantly manipulated them.

THE AMERICAN FEDERATION OF LABOR AND THE WORKING-CLASS

While the formal school network did not substantially improve the social existence of the workers, many attempted to solve their plight through labor organizations. To be sure, the American labor movement was not a monolithic experience. Nevertheless, by the turn of the century, the American Federation of Labor assumed an important role among labor associations. Formed in 1886 as a confederation of craft unions, the AFL ignored unskilled, industrial and farm workers. This exclusion policy applied to women, Blacks, and immigrants as well since they dominated the unskilled ranks of the workers.[7] The AFL, therefore, functioned as an elite organization since it only recruited the aristocracy of the working-class.

Moreover, the Federation maintained close ties with the National Civic Federation. The NCF, created by Ohio industrialist Mark Hanna in 1900, consisted of business leaders, clergy, academicians, politicians, and conservative trade unionists. J. Ogden Armour of Armour and Company, Louis F. Swift of Swift and Company, Charles M. Schwab of United States Steel, Elbert H. Gary of the Federal Steel Company, and Cyrus H. McCormick of the McCormick Harvesting Company represented some of the prominent employers enrolled in the NCF. Many had worked with J. P. Morgan in their attempts to eliminate unionism from their respective industries.[8] In addition to Samuel Gompers, who was a charter member, the NCF labor constituency included:

> . . . the heads of the Railroad Brotherhoods, the presidents of the iron, steel and tin workers, granite cutters, longshoremen, machinists, iron moulders, printers, garment workers, carpenters and joiners, bricklayers and masons, street railway employees, boot and shoe workers, bottle blowers, stationary firemen, and textile workers' unions.[9]

The objectives of the NCF entailed the elimination of strikes and direct confrontation as a hedge against radical unionism. When a labor controversy occurred, business elites, labor leaders and representatives of the general public assembled at a conference or a dinner-banquet in order to resolve their differences. It was hoped that this friendly atmosphere would produce a peaceful settlement which would benefit all of the participants. "The objective was clear. Rather than smash unionism, this section of the employing class sought to emasculate it, to ensnare the labor leaders into a conscious program of collaborating with the employers, robbing the workers of their vigor, militancy, and the spirit of their class."[10] As a result, broad social reforms, such as wealth redistribution, did not become an integral part of the AFL strategy. The AFL, instead, adhered to a policy of pure and simple business unionism by only bargaining for higher wages as a means of alleviating the economic hardships of its members.[11]

Although the AFL constituted the largest labor association during the early 1900's, the majority of workers remained unorganized. By 1920, for example, scarcely nineteen percent of the 26,000,000 total wage earners could claim membership in some type of labor orgainzation.[12] The AFL only accounted for a portion of this percentage.

After years of struggle, the working-class maintained a frustrating and futile existence within the prevailing economic system. The public schools did not benefit the worker and, in many ways, galvanized the subordinate social position of the workers. Moreover, the predominate labor organization, the AFL, sidetracked working-class issues by attending to the interests of capital. Because of the AFL's weak stance, not only were the grievances of unorganized workers ignored, but organized workers suffered many setbacks as well.

SOCIAL THEORIES OF AMERICAN EDUCATORS

Best known for his child centered philosophy in education, John Dewey also wrote about many of the social and economic problems of his day. In a 1918 article entitled "Internal Social Reorganization After the War," Dewey outlined unemployment; the "degraded and inhuman standard, or scale, of living of the working-class;" and, worker alienation as the major social and economic deficiencies.[13] Large-scale social and economic reform such as the "socialistic" model of state guaranteed jobs; a minimum wage; "health and old age insurance;" and democratization of the workplace through "industrial socialism" exemplified Dewey's recommendations for correcting the situation.[14]

The school system, likewise, did not escape Dewey's scrutiny. As he saw it, the public schools actually impeded social progress:

> We are too apt to pride ourselves upon our public and universal system of education without knowing that the great majority of the population get the benefit only of the more rudimentary and elementary phase of our educational system, and that by far the larger percentage of children leave the public schools before they have an education.[15]

Consequently, Dewey felt that education had to be reorganized as well in order to better facilitate social and economic change. He stipulated these reforms in a 1934 pamphlet titled Education and the Social Order.[16] These suggestions included a curriculum geared toward the social sciences and student activism; the eradication of individual competition and the emphasis of collective cooperation; the abolishment of oligarchical management by a few school administrators and the implementation of student and teacher participation in the decision-making process; and, finally, the promotion of adult education.

George S. Counts set forth similar views in many of his works. Dare The School Build a New Social Order, of course, signified the best expression of Counts' social criticisms:

> With (capitalism's) deification of the principle of selfishness, its exaltation of the profit motive, its reliance upon the forces of competition, and its placing of property above human rights, it will either have to be displaced altogether or changed so radically in form and spirit that its identity will be completely lost.[17]

Public education, as illustrated in The Social Composition of Boards of Education, would be modified as well in order to serve all of society rather than just certain social classes.[18]

While Dewey and Counts both admonished the existing class structure and the schools that perpetuated it, only Dewey proffered a clearcut plan of social and educational reorganization.

WORKING-CLASS RADICALISM

The early decades of the twentieth century represented one of the more militant eras of working-class thought and action. Naturally, this radicalism manifested itself in a number of ways and in a variety of associations, but the leading organizations became the Socialist Party, led by Eugene Debs, and the Industrial Workers of the World.

The Socialist Party, created in 1901, strove for a new social order controlled by the workers. As Debs described it in 1904:

> The Socialist Party stands for abolition of the wage system, for the economic freedom as well as the political equality of the working-class, knowing that without the former the latter is impossible.
>
> The Socialist Party stands for the collective ownership of the means of wealth production and distribution and the operation of industry in the interest of all.
>
> The Socialist Party stands for industry of the people, by the people, and for the people, that wealth may be produced for the use of all instead of for the profit of a few, and as the basis of a real republic, in which every citizen shall have the inalienable right to work and to enjoy the fruit of his labor.[19]

The Socialist Party hoped to attain its goals through the electoral process and it achieved considerable success in its endeavors. In the 1912 election, Debs obtained six percent of the total Presidential vote. "At the same time, Party members held their greatest number of public offices--some 1,200 in 340 municipalities from coast to coast, among them 79 mayors in 24 states."[20]

While the Socialist Party attempted to restructure American society by the political route, the Industrial Workers of the World, organized in 1905, struggled for the same ideals through direct action. This method involved the organization of all unskilled industrial and farm workers--with no exceptions for sex, race, or national orgin. The IWW successfully led the 1909 steelworkers' strike in McKees Rocks, Pennsylvania; the 1912 Lawrence textile workers' strike in Massachusetts; and, the free speech campaigns of the Northwest between 1909 and 1916.[21] "The Wobbily led strikes were fought with revolutionary rhetoric . . . were non-violent, relying instead on solidarity (the Wobbilies' magic word) and mass picketing."[22] The IWW preamble summarized its goals and methods:

> Instead of the Conservative motto, "A fair day's wage for a fair day's work," we must inscribe on our banner the revolutionary watchword, "Abolition of the wage system."
>
> It is the historic mission of the working-class to do away with capitalism. The army of production must be organized, not only for the every-day struggle with capitalists, but also to carry on production when capitalism shall have been overthrown.
>
> By organizing industrially we are forming the structure of the new society within the shall of the old.

The Socialist Party and the IWW essentially pursued the same objective; that is, a new economic order which would equalize social relations. Although their methods differed, these organizations complemented each other quite well. For instance, Joseph Conlin, in Bread and Roses Too, related that the Socialist Party usually polled more votes in areas where the IWW was the strongest.[23] Furthermore, Debs openly supported the IWW not only as a participant at its founding convention in 1905, but also as late as his famous Canton, Ohio, speech of 1918.[24]

Unfortunately for them, both groups opposed American participation in World War One. As a result, the United States Government tried and convicted Debs for his so-called seditious Canton speech while IWW leaders were beaten, jailed, and/or lynched. Although the Socialists scored an impressive number of votes in the 1920 election--with candidate Debs in prison--the numerical strength and vitality of the Socialist Party and the IWW dwindled with constant government harassment.

THE LABOR COLLEGE MOVEMENT

Dissatisfied with the corporate-capitalist system and the schools and labor organizations which supported it, enlightened intellectuals and militant labor leaders continued their fight for a new social order, but education now represented the principal means of accomplishing the desired transformation. However, worker discontent with formal schooling generated a new approach to education. George Counts perceived the situation as such:

> Clearly, the fundamental motive underlying the labor-education movement is the growing distrust of the public school. The laboring classes are becoming interested in the social and economic order in which they live and work; they are convinced that they are the objects of exploitation by the favored classes; they desire the power which comes from clear insight into the forces which surround them; and they do not trust the instruction which society provides for them through schools controlled by boards of education composed, for the most part, of persons representing the employers' point of view. In no other way can the establishment and support of schools of their own on the part of organized labor be understood.[25]

Radical labor leaders, such as James Maurer who was Socialist President of the Pennsylvania Federation of Labor, expressed similar views. In 1922, Maurer's article, "Labor's Demand For Its Own Schools," virtually replicated Counts' analysis:

> From all parts of the country come hundreds of authentic reports of restrictions put upon professors and teachers who would discuss labor problems freely. But what else can we expect? The boards of education and the boards of trustees of the colleges and universities are composed almost entirely of influential business and professional men who have a deep-seated fear and hatred of anything that can be construed as encouragement to the labor movement. They are extremely conservative, if not reactionary, on all social and economic questions.[26]

Sources

Since the labor colleges had little or no affiliation, financial or otherwise, with any specific union or any formalized educational institution, the schools represented a grass roots education movement of the working-class. Brookwood Labor College, located in Katonah, New York, opened in the fall of 1921 while Commonwealth Labor College, near Mena, Arkansas, began to admit students in 1925. Intellectuals, such as educators and graduate students, and militant labor unionists played important roles in creating the schools. In both cases, many of the graduate students had worked with John R. Commons in the Economics Department at the University of Wisconsin. Subsequently, they possessed an extensive background in labor history. For example, William Zeuch, the main organizer of Commonwealth, earned his Ph.D. while working as a research assistant with Commons. Moreover, George Counts agreed to serve on the advisory committee at Commonwealth.[27] Finally, the American Federation of Teachers granted local charters to the Brookwood and Commonwealth faculties.

Some of the labor supporters, on the other hand, included A. J. Muste, James Maurer, and Kate Richards O'Hare. Muste, of the Amalgamated Textile Workers of America, performed a critical role in organizing and negotiating the long but successful Lawrence, Massachusetts, strike of 1919. James Maurer, Socialist and President of the Pennsylvania Federation of Labor, also ran as the Socialist candidate for Vice-President with Norman Thomas in 1928. Muste and Maurer not only participated in the founding of Brookwood, but both worked closely with the school for many years. Muste acted as Director of Brookwood while Maurer served on the Board of Directors.[28] Kate Richards O'Hare had served in leadership posts of the IWW and had begun to formulate plans for Commonwealth as early as 1923. She also ran as Debs' Vice-Presidential candidate one year.

Unlike Brookwood and Commonwealth, Work Peoples' College did not originate as a school for workers. Instead, the school evolved into the workers' education movement. In 1903, Finnish immigrants of the National Lutheran sect opened the Folk School in Minneapolis, Minnesota; it was later moved to Duluth. The school functioned primarily to preserve the religious and ethnic heritage of the Finns in that area, and claimed both a seminary and an academic program. Share holders purchased stock issued by the school in order to finance its operations.[29] In 1908 the Finnish Socialist Federation gained control of the school through the purchase of a majority of the stock. They adopted a new name for the school, Working Peoples' College, and the program strongly reflected the socialist influence. The school experienced its last transition in 1912 when the industrial unionists, i.e., the IWW, supplanted the "conservative socialists." Eventually, Work Peoples' College received formal recognition as an IWW school at the 1921 Wobbily Convention.[30] Ironically, the anti-capitalist IWW, by acquiring a majority of the school's stock, secured control of the college by capitalistic manipulation.

While Brookwood achieved acclaim as the first fulltime residential labor college in the nation, Commonwealth was often referred to as the Brookwood of the Southwest.[31] In his autobiography of Commonwealth, Educational Commune, Raymond Koch recognized Work Peoples' College as a prototype of Brookwood and Commonwealth as well.[32]

Purposes

The goals of these labor colleges were basically twofold and closely reflected the background of their founders who were all "militants, severe critics of the American Federation of Labor who believed (in the need for) a new social order."[33] First, the labor college movement stood for the establishment of a new social order. However, these schools did not act as a "haven from the evils of capitalism," rather their main "premise was that the entire structure of American society would have to be reformed and transformed to eliminate the disorders of an unplanned competitive society."[34] A more equatable distribution of wealth would result.

The second primary goal of the labor colleges consisted of training labor leaders. This aspect was especially emphasized by the New York Times when it heralded the opening of Brookwood:

> Brookwood is expected by those who founded it to be the first of a number of colleges for labor men and women, where they may gain a knowledge of social history and economics, and of logical processes of thought necessary for the training of "labor statesmen."[35]

The labor colleges, in brief, groomed their graduates to serve in leadership posts for the labor movement. The students were not trained to be union bureaucrats, but to avail themselves to "the special interests of people who must work for a living--on farms, in factories, and stores, in offices . . ."[36] It was not the aim of these schools "to educate the workers out of their class."[37] Consequently, the conservative social mobility enticement for workers to better themselves through schooling was completely disavowed. The labor college students, therefore, represented "a definite part of the labor movement."[38] It was hoped that once the working-class was organized into a solidified group, it could exert collective pressure to initiate the ameliorations necessary for the restructuring of society.

Hence, the goals of the labor colleges reflected worker disenchantment with the social mobility facade perpetrated by the public schools; symbolized organized and unorganized worker discontent with the bureaucratic and elitest AFL; and, drew ideological roots from the intellectual and radical working-class philosophies of the early tentieth century. These schools served broad social goals rather than pecuniary interests. The labor colleges not only actively strived for a new social order; they operated as the model for the new society as well.

Program

The ideals of the labor colleges were clearly reflected in their program. Although minor differences in the curriculum existed between the schools, their overall programs were more similar than disimilar. For example, the schools generally maintained a two year program of studies. Also, practical activities supplemented the academic features of the program. Finally, the learning methodologies utilized by these schools were often more innovative than those which were being employed in the formal educational institutions at that time. These schools, to be sure, contrasted greatly with the typical college.

The first year emphasized the learning, or relearning, of rudimentary reading and writing skills, introductory material related to working-class conflicts, and basic concepts which dealt with the social sciences. The schools devoted the second year to specific training in the labor struggles.[39] The latter year, of course, received the greatest attention. The second year program was divided into "two headings: background courses which analyze underlying social principles and experience; and tool courses which equiped the workers to carry-out their struggles."[40] Courses such as "working-class history, Marxian economics, labor problems, imperialism, . . . (and) proletarian literature" denoted the courses offered in the first area of study.[41] Public speaking, office courses, labor dramatics and music, how to conduct strikes, picket lines, conventions, and political campaigns composed the second segment. It must be emphasized, however, that students advanced at their own pace through this program. Instead of demanding that the students should adjust to the schools' requirements, the schools adapted themselves to the students' needs. No degrees were awarded and graded evaluations were forbidden. Although Brookwood and Commonwealth became incorporated with their respective states, neither institution was accredited.

Labor dramas and off-campus strikes represented the more unique facets of the curriculum. The students performed their own compositions or portrayed plays written by professional playwrights. As outlined by A. J. Muste, quoted in an article written by Helen Norton in Labor Age, the play served several functions:

> It may be a means of self expression, making the Labor Movement more vital to the workers themselves; it may interpret the Labor Movement for the public in more sympathetic and appealing terms than abstract reasoning can do; it may be a means of entertainment, particularly in isolated regions where the pool room and the blind tiger are the only means of diversion.[42]

The students staged their dramas for other students at the schools, workers at union halls, and Brookwood students even managed to present a play on Broadway. The schools also encouraged students to organize and to participate in off-campus strike activity. Commonwealth, for instance, maintained close ties with the heavily Black Southern Tenant Farmers' Union while many Brookwood students and instructors became involved with the long and brutal Marion, North Carolina, textile strike of 1929.[43]

The students actively participated in all phases of the schools. In class the students preferred a discussion format instead of a lecture. In this manner, student experiences became an integral part of the education process.[44] The faculties consisted of a nonprofessional staff and the schools, in general, relied heavily on guest speakers which included labor leaders and organizers and editors.[45] Since the colleges operated as democratic, cooperative communities, class sessions often took place in an instructor's cottage, or a lesson was conducted while the teacher and student plowed a field (in Commonwealth's case), chopped wood, or washed dishes together.[46] The students also shared decision-making responsibilities since they participated in school meetings, sometimes on a Board of Directors level. At Work Peoples' College, for example, business meetings were held every friday night with students in attendence.[47] This communal setting encouraged a cooperative feeling which transferred to the development of fraternal attitudes among workers who belonged to a common union and to a new society.

The schools' libraries were well stocked and served important roles. The Commonwealth library contained over 8,000 volumes which included a "vast collection of labor, sociological and economic digests, texts and other works."[48] In addition, Commonwealth boasted of its "Museum of Social Change" which demonstrated the adverse relationship between capitalism and the working-class through the display of "tear-gas bombs and bloody lynch ropes, and depression clothing made of old sacking."[49]

The colleges constructed their programs in deference to the precepts of the schools and the background of the students. Enrollment seldom exceeded sixty students which ensured a low ratio of about ten students for every teacher. Students were generally in their twenties; from families of industrial laborers, farmers, or miners; and, possessed a plethora of viewpoints from different sections of the country. Except for Work Peoples' College which mainly catered to Finnish workers, a variety of ethnic and racial groups attended the schools. Most of the students had little formal schooling. In fact, Work Peoples' College reported in 1913 that over one-third of its students that year had never been to school.[50] This intentional mixture of diversified backgrounds, of course, broadened the educational setting.

Consequently, every characteristic of the labor college program was geared toward its ideals. The academic subjects, dramas, strike activities, library, and other adjuncts, such as Commonwealth's museum, all depicted the deplorable treatment of the working-class by the capitalist system. Not only did the program function to arouse the worker's conscious, but the program provided the student with the tools necessary to improve the social condition of the working-class.

Outcomes

Obviously, these schools produced considerable controversy and opposition. Outraged over criticisms by Brookwood of the complacent attitude and weak actions of the AFL, Matthew Woll, Vice-President of the AFL and acting President of the National Civic Federation, bitterly denounced Brookwood as a communist institution during the 1928 AFL Convention held in New Orleans. The charges were overstated since only one Brookwood instructor, Arthur Calhoun, was a known Communist. The accusations became further exaggerated when Brookwood's antagonists labelled the school as anti-religious and a free love colony. The AFL Executive Council handled the case in an unscrupulous manner since Brookwood was not forewarned of the charges; denied access to the incriminating evidence; or, given an opportunity to refute the accusations. John Dewey, in "labor Politics and Labor Education," severely chastised Woll and the AFL for their underhanded actions.[51] Brookwood, though, not only lost prestige, but the school also suffered the withdraw of funds and support by unions affiliated with the Federation.[52] In 1932, because of a financial crisis at the college, Brookwood reduced its staff and student body and cutback its extension program. John Dewey, Sinclair Lewis, and others solicited donations for Brookwood through an article which appeared in the Nation.[53] However, it was too little and too late; Brookwood somehow managed to survive to 1937.

Commonwealth, on the other hand, experienced many attacks from a variety of opponents. The first onslaught occurred as early as 1926 when the Arkansas American Legion accused Commonwealth of affiliating with communists and receiving secret donations from the Soviet Union. With the help of the Arkansas Federation of Labor and J. Edgar Hoover's denial of the Soviet connection, Commonwealth weathered this first storm.[54] Later, in 1935 and in 1937, Commonwealth became the subject of investigations by the Arkansas Legislature. A Baptist minister, the Ku Klux Klan, and employers opposed to Commonwealth's association with the Southern Tenant Farmers' Union had persuaded the legislature to initiate these inquiries. Accused of seditious activity, sexual perversion, and godlessness, Commonwealth only endured because of the intervention of notables such as Jane Addams and H. L. Mencken.[55] Fortunately, Commonwealth "continued to receive donations from such supporters as . . . Harvard's Law Dean Roscoe Pound and economist Sumner Schlicter, labor historian John Commons, H. L. Mencken, John Dewey, Justice Louis D. Brandeis, and Albert Einstein."[56] Nevertheless, constant harassment by anti-communist and anti-labor elements forced Commonwealth to close in 1941 on concocted charges of prominently exhibiting the unlawful symbol of a hammer and a sickle; disseminating propaganda which encouraged the overthrow of the United States Government; and, not displaying the American flag on campus.[57] Although Brookwood and Commonwealth supported and worked for the transformation of the undemocratic, American capitalist economy, neither school advocated the dissolution of the democratic, American political structure. Most tragic, perhaps, was the fact that Commonwealth College, like Brookwood, was "attacked unmercifully by many who (had) never been there."[58]

Work Peoples' College survived to 1941 as well. The reason for its demise remains unclear, as yet, because of insufficient data due to inadequate research sources.

CONCLUSIONS

Did the labor colleges create a new social order? Although the social fabric did not experience a drastic alteration--as the ideals of these schools desired--the complexion of the American labor movement did change during the 1930's. The Congress of Industrial Organizations which recruited unskilled, industrial workers exemplified this transition. The American Federation of Labor, it may be recalled, only accepted craft workers into its membership. With the formation of the CIO, a great many workers finally received representation and recognition. Subsequently, the labor movement became more universal due, in part, to the efforts of the labor college movement. In 1964, Thomas Brooks, in Toil and Trouble, elaborated this point:

> Over the years, Brookwood trained an impressive number of people who played a leading role in the founding of the Congress of Industrial Organizations and have since filled many positions of leadership in the unions.[59]

To be sure, the labor colleges were not singly responsible for the development of the CIO. However, the schools' ideals closely corresponded to the philosophy and structure of the CIO. It cannot be denied, therefore, that the labor college movement played an important part in the transition of the labor movement from a predominately elitist institution to a universal working-class movement.

Were labor leaders produced? Although no serious research has been attempted in this regard, bits of information may be pieced together to provide some picture of the role that labor college graduates served in the labor movement. One such illustration is Marius Hansome who recorded these observations in 1941:

> In the course of more than fifteen years of activity, Brookwood trained five hundred persons many of whom occupy responsible positions in labor and social movements today. If it could have continued another decade, it would probably have found a means of survival, since more graduates would have attained to higher posts from which appropriations are voted.[60]

Thomas Brooks, again, revealed an interesting revelation about the specific careers of some Brookwood graduates:

> Among them were two Reuther Brothers, Victor and Roy, Julius Hochman, a vice-president of the International Ladies Garment Workers' Union, Rose Pesotta, an ILGWU organizer active in the Akron sit-downs, and Clinton S. Golden, who with other Brookwood graduates was active in the founding of the Steelworkers.[61]

Moreover, Victor Reuther later taught at Commonwealth for a brief period in 1936.[62] According to Victor Reuther, in The Brothers Reuther, other Brookwood graduates such as Frank Winn and Nat Weinberg worked with the Reuthers in their UAW organizing campaigns of the late 1930's and early 1940's.[63] Thus, in a relatively short period of time, Brookwood alumni entered the labor movement in substantial numbers to assume important positions. How many other labor activists attended these schools and received little, or no, recognition for their deeds? The material is not readily available to answer this question, but it cannot be ignored in evaluating the success of these colleges in developing working-class leaders.

NOTES

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3. S. Alexander Rippa, Education in a Free Society: An American History (New York: David McKay Company, Inc., 1976), p. 157.

4. Margaret Byington, Homestead: The Households of a Mill Town (Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania: The University Center for International Studies, University of Pittsburgh, 1974), p. 160.

5. Paul W. McBride, "The Co-Op Industrial Education Experiment: 1900-1917," History of Education Quarterly, 14 (1974), p. 210.

6. Ibid., p. 218.

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8. Philip S. Foner, History of the Labor Movement in the United States, Volume III: The Policies and Practices of the American Federation of Labor, 1900-1909 (New York: International Publishers, 1973), p. 64.

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12. Leo Wolman, The Growth of American Trade Unions, 1880-1923 (1924; rpt. New York: Arno Press, 1975), p. 85.

13. John Dewey, "Internal Social Reorganization After the War," The Journal of Race Development (Journal of International Relations), 8 (1918), pp. 387-393.

14. Ibid., pp. 396-399.

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16. John Dewey, Education and the Social Order (New York: League for Industrial Democracy, 1934).

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20. James Weinstein, "Socialist Electoral Strength, 1912-1918," *Many Pasts: Readings in American Social History, 1865-The Present, Volume II*, ed. Herbert G. Gutman and Gregory S. Kealey (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1973), p. 284.

21. Joseph R. Conlin, *Bread and Roses Too: Studies of the Wobbilies* (Westport, Connecticut: Greenwood Press, 1969), p. 5. Also see Philip Foner, *History of the Labor Movement in the United States, Volume IV: The Industrial Workers of The World, 1905-1917* (New York: International Publishers, 1973).

22. *Ibid.*

23. *Ibid.*, p. 128.

24. Debs, pp. 243-279.

25. Counts, *Boards of Education*, p. 87.

26. James H. Maurer, "Labor's Demand For Its Own Schools," *Nation*, 115 (1922), p. 277.

27. For references of Commonwealth's various supporters, see Raymond and Charlotte Koch, *Educational Commune: The Story of Commonwealth College* (New York: Schocken Books, 1972). Hereafter cited as *Educational Commune*.

28. See A. J. Muste, *The Essays of A. J. Muste*, ed. Nat Hentoff (New York: Simon and Schuster, 1967) for an autobiographical glimpse of Brookwood Labor College. Hereafter cited as *Essays.*

29. A. William Hoglund, *Finnish Immigrants in America: 1880-1920* (Madison, Wisconsin, 1960), p. 64.

30. Rosa Knutti, "The Work Peoples' College," *Industrial Pioneer*, 1 (Oct. 1921), pp. 59-61.

31. "Commonwealth College Makes New Start," *Christian Century*, 54 (1937), p. 1037.

32. *Educational Commune*, p. 8.

33. *Essays*, p. 92.

34. *Educational Commune*, loc. cit. For a similar view of Brookwood, see Tucker P. Smith, "Workers Prepare For Power," *Progressive Education,*

11 (1934), p. 303. For Work Peoples' College, see Arthur Gleason, Workers' Education: American Experiments (New York: Bureau of Industrial Research, 1921), p. 53.

35. "Labor Statesmen's Alma Mater Opens," New York Times, 9 Oct. 1921, Section II, p. 1, col. 1. See Lucien Koch, "Commonwealth College," Progressive Education, 11 (1934), pp. 301-302, and Kristen Svanum, "The Work Peoples' College: Where Industrial Unionists Are Efficiently Educated," Industrial Pioneer, 2 (Feb. 1925), pp. 47-48, for Commonwealth's and WPC's efforts to train labor leaders.

36. Educational Commune, loc. cit.

37. Gleason, p. 55.

38. Times, 9 Oct. 1921.

39. Essays, p. 99.

40. Smith, pp. 303-304.

41. Lucien Koch, pp. 301-302, and Svanum for more curriculum information.

42. Helen G. Norton, "Drama At Brookwood," Labor Age, 15 (May 1926), pp. 18-19.

43. See Donald H. Grubbs, Cry from the Cotton: The Southern Tenant Farmers' Union and the New Deal (Chapel Hill: The University of North Carolina Press, 1971), for a detailed study of the relationship between Commonwealth and the STFU.

44. Clifford B. Ellis, "What Life Means to a Worker: The Story of the Past Winter at the Work Peoples' College," Industrial Pioneer, 4 (May 1926), p. 16.

45. Richard Deverall, "Commonwealth College: How the Communists Run a Labor College in the Ozarks and the Lesson to be Learned From It," Commonweal, 30 (1939), p. 10.

46. Educational Commune, p. 10.

47. Svanum, p. 48.

48. Deverall, pp. 9-11.

49. "Commonwealth: New Museum Shows Collapse of Capitalism," Newsweek, 16 Feb. 1935, p. 27.

50. Hoglund, p. 20.

51. John Dewey, "Labor Politics and Labor Education," New Republic,

57 (1929), pp. 211-214.

52. See Labor Age, Oct.-Nov., 1928, for background of the AFL-Brookwood conflict.

53. John Dewey, et al., "Correspondence Help For Brookwood," Nation, 135 (1932), p. 592.

54. Educational Commune, pp. 72-73.

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60. Marius Hansome, "The Development of Workers' Education," Workers' Education in the United States, ed. Theodore Brameld (New York, 1941), p. 60.

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Reflections on the Relevance of Attribution Theory to the Educational Process

by

Ronald K. Barrett

Abstract

Reflections of the Relevance of Attribution Theory to the Educational Process

by

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This paper represents an extension of thoughts and ideas articulated in a research proposal of similar concern("A study of attributions and teacher dispositions to success and failure"). The paper represents an effort to review and integrate a rather extensive body of existing literature which shares a particular focus relevant to enhancing our understanding of the social-psychological dynamics of the teacher-pupil relationship as it relates to casual ascriptions and achievement related behavior. In addition, the paper can be thought of as an attempt to demonstrate the utility of meaningful applications of theoretical works in this area to a real-life problem situation.

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Reflections on the Relevance of Attribution Theory to the Educational Process

Since the time of Fritz Heider's (1958) analysis of person perception, the area of study, later called "attribution theory", has been extensively developed and explored via many avenues of social concern. Some of the more ambitious and productive efforts in this area have been directed in the study of achievement related behavior. In a recent book, Weiner (1972) rather convincingly demonstrates the significant implications of attribution theory for the educational process. A number of relevant studies in the area underscore the importance of studying causal attributions as they influence the likelihood of undertaking achievement activities (Weiner, 1970; Weiner, Frieze, Kukla, Reed, Rest, & Rosenbaum, 1971), the intensity of work at these activities and the degree of persistence in the face of failure (Meyer, 1970; McMahan, 1971). A number of studies (Weiner & Kukla, 1970; Kukla, 1972; Meyer, 1970) have examined the influence of one's causal biases (individual differences) when interpreting outcomes of success and failure and the implications for achievement strivings. Still other investigators have examined the differences in causal ascriptions of participants and non-participants in success and failure situations (Jones, Shaver, Goethals, & Ward, 1968; Beckman, 1970; and Jones & Nisbett, 1971).

As our concern is with teacher's causal ascriptions of success and failure of pupils in the context of the educational classroom, these studies are very much relevant to our discussion. However, of particular interest at this point are those studies (Jones & Nisbett, 1971) which report that persons tend to perceive their behavior as being determined by stimulus factors (external), while perceiving the behavior of others as due to internal traits. Jones and Nisbett (1971) seem to suggest that when making attributions about others, effort may be perceived as a stable trait, yet as an unstable attribute when making self-ascriptions. Beckman (1970) report data which show that the role of the person, participant or observer, may be a crucial determinant of quite different inferences about the factors determining achievement behavior Weiner et al. (1971) contend that self-ascriptions of failure as due to insufficient effort produce different behavioral consequences from those resulting from self-ascriptions of failure perceived to be caused by a lack of ability.

In the failure situation what then are the behavioral implications for achievement strivings if the causal ascriptions are made to a lack of effort vs. a lack of ability? To begin to answer this question we would have to know more about the relationship of the causal elements; ability, effort, task difficulty, and luck as they relate to influence outcomes. Although Heider (1958) goes to some length to explain the concepts in his formulative statement of causal analysis, he does not specify the mathematical relationship between the elements. Weiner et al. (1971) present a clever classification scheme of the causal elements separating them along two distinct dimensions: locus of control and stability. This classification scheme has proven to be valuable in enhancing the understanding of the relationship of the elements along the dimensions in the proposed scheme as it warns against confounding the two dimensions as generally characterized by past research.

		Locus of Control Dimension	
		Internal	External
Stability dimension	Stable	ability	task difficulty
	Unstable	effort	Luck

In Heider's (1958) original statement on the attribution process, he distinguishes between two determinants of behavior: "can" and "try." Can may be thought of as a relatively invariant (stable) property of the individual (i.e. intelligence, ability, etc.), while try is determined by the momentary intention and effort expenditure of the actor. In achievement related contexts, successful outcomes may be explained in terms of high ability and/or effort, while failure is perceived as due to low ability and/or lack of effort (Weiner, et al., 1971). Jones, et al., (1968) report data which show that the pattern of successes and failures over time may have a significant effect on causal ascriptions (as the judge may employ a "discounting" or "augmentation" strategy to make judgements about ability, effort, task difficulty, and luck). Weiner et al. (1971) contend that the percentage and number of prior successes and failures, patterns of performance, time spent at the task, co-variation of the outcomes with incentives, and a multitude of other factors are among the cues that one uses to infer attributions of causality. Frieze and Weiner (1971) have demonstrated that there are great individual differences in the information used to infer the causes of success and failure, as well as the manner in which information is integrated to reach a causal judgment. Weiner, et al. (1971) contend that if past behavior at a task is attributed by the actor to the fixed (stable) factors of ability or task difficulty, there should be fewer atypical aspiration shifts (increasing aspiration after failure or decreasing aspiration following success) than if the outcome of the prior performance was ascribed to the variable elements of luck or effort (unstable).

In the context of the educational classroom, the teacher is often seen in the role of the observer as she monitors the performance and progress of her pupils. From these observations of pupil performance causal ascriptions of success or failure will determine the degree of praise or reprimand. Studies examining the allocation of reinforcement as a function of causal ascriptions suggest that reward and self-pride is heightened when success is attributed to effort and low ability, while reprimand and shame is most induced when failure occurs given ability but no motivation (or effort) (Lanzetta & Hannah, 1969; Weiner & Kukla, 1970; Kukla, 1970; Cook; 1970).

Therefore it is suggested that a student's reward and feeling of self-pride is enhanced when success is attributed to effort in spite of "low ability," and the student experiences more shame and reprimand when failure occurs because of a lack of motivation in spite of ability.

From what we know about the differential effects of the prospective of the actor and observer (Jones & Nisbett, 1971), we expect that the disparte patterns of attributions to contrastingly effect both teacher and pupil and have parallel behavioral implications (Note: attributions do have behavioral implications on the part of the teacher, and her behavior can/does effect the motivation and aspirations of her pupils, as suggested by the work in the expectancy studies.)

Expectancy studies examining teacher expectations and performance (Rosenthal & Jacobson, 1968) demonstrate that ability expectancies have implications for teacher attributions concerning the causes of success and failure, and these attributions may have motivational consequences on the part of the teacher and the pupil. In these experiments teachers were given fraudulent high expectations about the students' abilities (experimental group), when in fact the students' abilities were average. In situations of failure, teachers were believed to have made causal ascriptions to a lack of effort, rather than low ability. However the teachers may have communicated these expectations to the pupils and hence facilitated subsequent achievement strivings which may explain the appreciable difference in intellectual development of the experimental group with the control students (Weiner, 1971)..

Beckman (1970) studied teacher-pupil evaluation of performance in an experimental situation and her findings show that teachers believe that they are more responsible for the performance of pupils exhibiting improved performance over time than for the outcome of pupils whose performances progressively deteriorated. Interestingly enough, a group of observers stated that in their judgment the teachers were more responsible for the deteriorating than the improving performances. Weiner (1972) explains these findings by suggesting that the ego-enhancing and ego-defensive attributions are likely to be made when one is directly involved with the success and failure of others.

In the context of the educational classroom, clear-cut veridical attributions are hard to come by - they are often misdirected by a number of biases in the person as a function of his level of participation and his use of the information available to him in making his judgment. We could also expect that the attribution process becomes even more complicated when one considers the social influence of racial, sexual, and cultural differences which may place a further strain on teacher-pupil interactions and ultimately make attributions a "hit-n-miss" phenomena. As racial, sexual and cultural stereotypes, prejudices, and similar ethnocentric "blinders" further incumber the individual, causal ascriptions become a rather ambitious and complicated process.

Research done in the area of educational psychology show that the attitudes (expectations and perceptions) and values affect behavior (Clark, 1965; Rosenthal & Jacobson, 1968), and what we read about the teachers of the "disadvantaged" seem overwhelmingly negative. The literature generally views the middle-class teacher in relation to the lower-class pupils. Becker (1952) and Riesman (1962) agree that the teacher's middle-class attitudes and values can conflict with those of the lower- or disadvantaged students, and they often generate expectancies of performance and often predefines students' successes and failures.

Becker (1952), Clark (1965) and Rosenthal and Jacobson (1968) contend that a teacher's expectations influence the aspiration level and learning of the child and these expectations tend to vary inversely with the child's socio-economic class; they warn that the child usually perceives and fulfills these lower expectations. Consequently, children usually behave the way that they are expected to behave. Clark (1965) maintains that a "teacher's ... attitude toward children is the only factor influencing the performance of children in the ghetto schools (p. 47)," and all other explanations are irrelevant; "the child of whom little is expected, produces little (p. 132)."

Often, in low socio-economic areas, new teachers have been assigned to teach minority group children with little or no knowledge of the child's cultural background or the nature of the communities in which these children live.

Arriving at eight in the morning and leaving at three in the afternoon, they have little or no understanding of what happens to the pupils during the remainder of the day outside of the school classroom (Orstein, 1968).

It is often pointed out that teachers often start with zeal and energy and want to do an effective job, but are unable to fulfill their professional responsibilities: and therefore, they become frustrated, indifferent, angry, and often "learn" the wrong attitudes (Ornstein, 1968). Frequently teachers expect to do a poor job and they rationalize their failures and use the literature to support their rationalizations and attributed responsibility of failure to the child (Ornstein, 1968).

It is then conceiveable to imagine that the often hostile environment of the educational classroom may facilitate a state of "learned helplessness" in young children as they are literally "turned-off" to the educational experience. What then are some plausible explanations as to why some teachers succeed and others fail? What is the role of teacher expectations for success and failure, and how might these expectations influence teacher motivation and aspiration level in the classroom and ultimately affect the child?

McDonald (1971) recently proposed that there is a "hereditarian bias" operant in our culture which disposes some people to favor what he terms "genetic" causal explanations over "environmental" explanations. Such a bias, he argues, predisposes the individual to look within the organism for the explanation of the source of its difficulties, rather than to the social or societal factors in one's environment. Such a bias might operate as follows for example, an explanation of lack of ability or motivation, an internal quality of the organism, might be more readily favored in a causal ascription over an explanation of social discriminatory practices. There is data which show that the tendency to favor genetic over environmental explanations is well pronounced in the Western world (Bronfenbrenner, 1968). McDonald (1971) contends that people generally believe that genetically based characteristics are relatively stable, immutable, and unaffected by environmental manipulations.

Given the validity of McDonald's thesis and the reliability of Bronfenbrenner's findings, such a hereditarian bias may very systematically predetermine our behavior as a function of our predisposition to make certain causal judgments. We already know the implications of causal ascriptions to the stable elements of the Weiner et al. (1971) scheme vs. the unstable elements - no effort vs. continued striving. In the context of our discussion of the educational classroom for example, a teacher (or pupil) who believes that the outcome of low performance is attributal to something stable (pupil's ability or task difficulty), will be less inclined to initiate additional efforts to effect future outcomes since he feels that there is little that he can do to change things. Consequently, expectations and subsequent aspirations will be lowered accordingly. Hence, such a bias may function is a "self-fulfilling" manner and systematically predetermines subsequent courses of action. Although McDonald's (1971) thesis has been developed into a scale, the "Nature-Nature Scale," to assess the hereditarian bias and its relative components, more work is needed in this area before we can begin to understand how this attributional process works and how (if at all) it influences our behavior.

The problems encountered while attempting to study the social-psychological dynamics of the educational classroom are numerous and are often interrelated. There is much valuable data amassed from work already done in this area. These efforts might be thought of as stepping-stones as they seem to be resourceful directives of the way which we must travel and toil before we can be more comfortable in our understanding of the Social-Psychological dynamics of the educational classroom as it relates to achievement related behavior.

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THE DYNAMICS OF COMPULSORY SCHOOL ATTENDANCE

Richard Cooper

THE DYNAMICS OF COMPULSORY SCHOOL ATTENDANCE

Children attend school because their parents send them, because they want to attend, or because the compulsory attendance law is enforced and they must attend. The six year old is sent to school by his parents; if the child likes school, he or she goes willingly. But even if the child dislikes school, the parents usually send the child because there is no legal alternative. Older children whose parents may not care still attend school because they like it or because school serves as a haven from home and other problems. School attendance is caused either by motivation or by by the compulsory attendance law.

The motivation of parents to send children to school or children to attend school may be conscious or unconscious. Parents usually don't think of all the reasons why the six year old child should be in school. At the time the child goes to school, it is the place for the child in our society. However, some parents consciously decide to send their children to school. These parents may consider school attendance as a way for the child to break out of the poverty cycle or a place where the child will be babysat for part of the day. The same applies to the children. Some go to school without consciously deciding; they accept that it's just the place for children to be. However, some children do have conscious and explicit reasons for attending; to learn, to prepare for a job, to be with friends, or to escape from home. Reasons for the child not attending school may be either conscious or unconscious. Consciously, the parents may not want the child in school, or because of other problems, they may not place a high priority

priority on education. The parent may consciously want the child at home to help with the chores or to care for younger siblings. Unconsciously, having never been to school, a parent may not know enough about school to want the child to be there. For such parents, the compulsory attendance law should be, and often is there, ready to provide the push which the parents need to send their children to school.

Parental motivation, self motivation, or the compulsory attendance law are the three reasons that all children who are in school are there. Those children who are not in school fall outside the above catagories.

Placing the three forces for school attendance into a model to illustrate it, we can see that children are sent to school because of one or more of these three reasons.

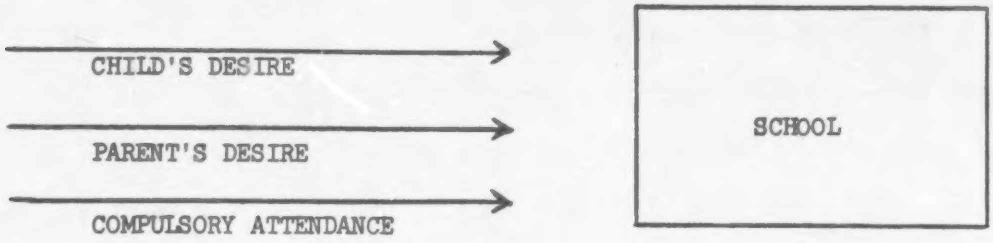

Figure 1.

But wait, do the parents of the handicapped child, who is not attending school not desire that the child attend school? Or the child himself, does this child not desire an education? As in most states the law does require that these children receive an education, are such laws just not enforced? Or what about the non-English speaking child who is not in school, are the three reasons for school attendance lacking in this case also? Granted, some parents don't want their children in school and some children don't want to be there, but then, where is the enforcement of the compulsory attendance law? But is it only a lack of enforcement of the compulsory attendance law which keeps approximately 5% of the school age children out of school in the country?[1] This may account for some of those children out of school, but many parents and children find that there are barriers to school attandance.

There have been and are barriers to school attendance. These barriers are effective ways of negating the effect of the desire of the parent or child to attend school, and negating the effect of the compulsory attendance law. In general, the legal barriers are more far reaching, educational policies in the middle, and inabilities usually affect the individual child.

There have been laws, and possibly still are laws, which keep children out of school. These laws are either part of the school code or they are laws which conflict with the school code. In 1906, Dr. Nathan Scheafer, - Pennsylvania's Superintendent of Public Instruction, described one such law.

> As the law now stands the unvaccinated child has no school privileges and must grow up illiterate and unprepared for the duties of civilized life. For under the existing statutes the unvaccinated child is excluded, not only from public school, but also from private schools and Sunday schools.[2]

The migrant children in the early 1900's were excluded by law from the schools in Pennsylvania and New Jersey. Lowry reported in Migrants of the Corps that the children in these two states who worked the fields could not attend school because they were not resident of the states where their parents were working. The parents used this to their advantage. They would go out of the state to work and thus could use their children in the fields since the children could not attend school.[3] Until 1913, the State statutes of Pennsylvania permitted school districts to allow orphans and other institutionalized children to attend schools in the districts where they were institutionalized. Apparently some districts did not permit these children in the schools because in 1913 an act was passed which required the school districts to allow their children into the schools.[4]

Exemptions and exclusions are another aspect of the legal barriers. The school code of Pennsylvania has a provision which exempts the physically and mentally handicapped which is essentially the same as it was in 1895, when the compulsory attendance was first passed in Pennsylvania. This provision enables the school board to exempt handicapped children from attending school. A child can be exempted rather than having educational facilities provided for that child.

In Pennsylvania in 1937, a law was enacted that required that children achieve a mental age of four and a half before that child could begin public school, and in 1951 this law was amended so that the child had to have a mental age of six .[5] The effect of this law was to keep the mentally handicapped out of the public schools. In 1937, a provision was passed which freed school districts from the duty of providing special classes for the feebleminded if there were less than ten such children in the district.[6] These children were then the responsibility of the Department of Welfare. So if the nine mentally handicapped children in the district could not find a tenth, then they were excluded from the public schools. In that same year, a provision was passed in Pennsylvania which enabled the school districts to exclude, with the approval of the State Division of Special Education, children who were unable to profit from further public schooling and to exclude those over 16, without State approval, who were unable to profit from further schooling.[7]

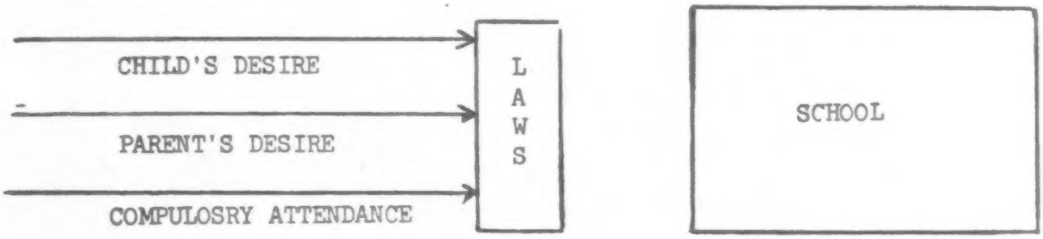

Figure 2.

The second barrier to school attendance is educational policies. These policies come at different levels. There are rules, regulations, and standards which are mandated by law; policies established by the State Office of Education; policies established in the school districts; and even individual schools may have policies which exclude children from school.

In 1937, Dr. Ernest Newland, Chief of Special Education in Pennsylvania, published temporary standards and procedures for the exclusion of children unable to profit from public school attendnace. This policy stated that since there were not enough mental clinics, public school psychologists, and psychological examiners (which were required by law to examine the children for exclusions under section 1413 of the Pennsylvania School Code) other people in the school were to administer the intelligence test to the whole group of 16 years olds. Children who scored low were to be retested and if the parents objected to the results, a psychological examiner was to be found to conduct the test. Dr. Newland suggested that someone in each school should have been familiar enough with the test to administer it.[8] Children with an IQ measured at less than 50 could be excluded; children with an IQ between 50 and 69 who had been in special education and were not profiting from it could be excluded; and children with an IQ between 69 and 75 with behavior problems could also be excluded.[9]

Thomas Cottle relates a case in his book of a child who was a bedwetter who was suspended from the public school because the administration claimed that the child might wet himself during school time. There was no law saying that he could not attend, the principal told his parents that he could go to another school, but as long as he had his problem, he could not return to this school.[10]

So we see that even though the law does not bar some children from the schools, educational policies at various levels can. Adding this barrier to the model we now have more children excluded from the schools. Educational policies as barriers have the same effect of negating the compulsory attendance law and it stands in the way of the child's or parents' desire for the child to be in school.

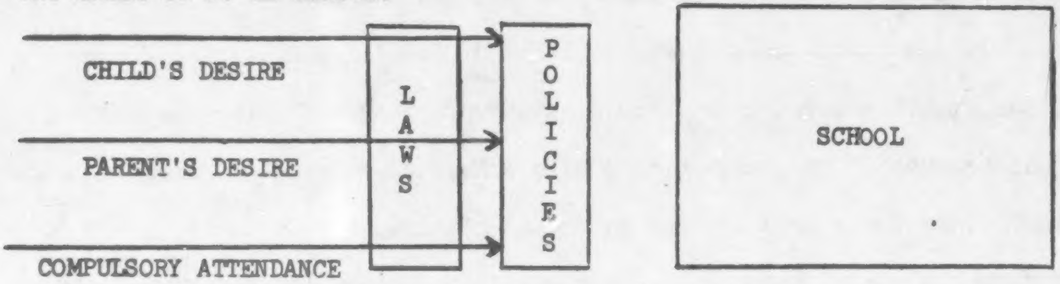

Figure 3.

The final barrier is that of inability. Some children just cannot attend school because they are not able. Many children live too far from school to attend. They are often unable to attend school because transportation is not available. Many states simply exempt school attendance for these children. It is comforting to know that these children are nct breaking the law because they are unable to attend school; however, it is heartbreaking that they are in fact excluded from the schools. If a handicapped child needs special facilities and the school does not have such facilities, such as a simple thing like ramps, then that child, in fact, is unable to attend school.

The very poor are often unable to attend school. The Children's Defense Fund cites cases in which school fees and textbook rentals prohibit the children of the poor from attending school.[11] Beside these extraordinary expenses, many children lack food and clothing which makes them unable to attend school. Although the number of migrant workers has been declining in recent years in this country, there are still large numbers of children traveling the migrant paths. Many of these children attend school because of the federal, state, and local programs, but many miss too many days of school to really receive an education.

Some children are unable to attend because they have been expelled or suspended. These are various reasons for suspension or expulsion however the most ridiculous of all is suspension as a punishment for truancy. In many school districts throughout the country children are actually suspended for not attending school.[12] It is almost inconceivable that keeping a student away from school would be used as a punishment for them not wanting to attend, but it is a common practice. If a child misses three days of school, he or she may fall behind in his or her school work, but if that child is suspended for another three days as punishment for being absent, the probability that he or she will fall behind in his or her work is increased. If the child falls behind, that child will probably become frustrated and could easily become a failure. So school becomes an unhappy place for that child, a place to stay away from. And if you argue that the child doesn't have to fall behind just because he or she is not in school, my question is what are the schools for if the children don't have to be there to learn? The logic of suspensions for truancy is illusive. As far as I can figure, it must go like this. Since it is difficult to get truants into school, it would be more difficult to get them to come to school to receive a punishment; so you keep them out of school and you kill two birds with one stone. You have punished them with a punishment which was not difficult to administer because you didn't have to deal with the student while he or she was being punished and, second, you don't have to worry about that student being truant when he or she is suspended from school. This practice raises serious questions in my mind about the purpose of the schools in our society.

Placing these barriers into the model we find that it accounts for still more children out of school. The children who are unable to attend school are often exempted by the compulsory attendance law so it is not one of the forces for their attendance. The inability to attend school not only stands in the way of parents' and child's desire to attend school but it often changes it into the desire not to attend school.

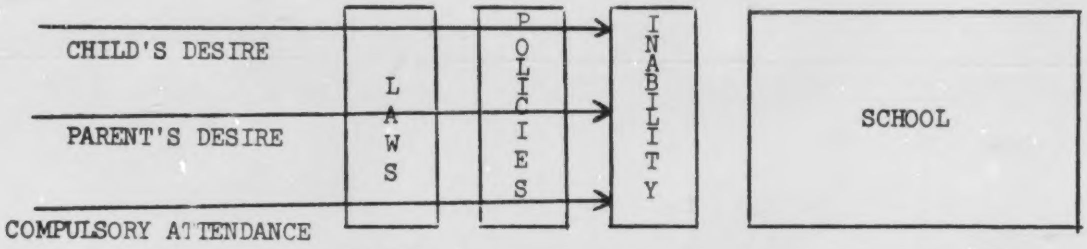
CHILD'S DESIRE
PARENT'S DESIRE
COMPULSORY ATTENDANCE
LAWS
POLICIES
INABILITY
SCHOOL

Figure 4.

These barriers are coming down in many areas, or at least I hope they are. As they come down, we approach the concept of the right to education for all children. However, the struggle is not over; not until we are a people dedicated to the idea that education is a fundamental right will these barriers be completely eliminated.

Footnotes

1. Children's Defense Fund, Children out of School (Washington D.C.,; Washington Research Project, 1975), p. 43

2. Nathan Scheafer, "Report to the General Assembly of Pennsylvania by the State Superintendent of Public Instruction of Pennsylvania, "Pennsylvania School Journal Vol. 54, January 1906, p. 282

3. Edith Lowry, Migrants of the Corps; They Starve That We May Eat (New York: Council of Women from Home Missions and Missionary Movement, 1938, p. 37

4. Laws of the General Assembly of Pennsylvania, 1913 , p. 192-3

5. Laws of the General Assembly of Pennsylvania, 1951, p. 1296

6. Laws of the General Assembly of Pennsylvania, 1937, p. 2563

7. Ibid., 2566

8. Ernest Newland, "Mental Examinations of School Children in 1937-38, "Public Education Bulletin, Vol. 5, No. 4, 1937, p. 9

9. Ernest Newland, "The Exclusion of Mental Incapable Children in Pennsylvania," Public Education Bulletin, Vol. 5, No. 4, 1937 p. 10

10. Thomas Cottle, Barred from the Schools: 2 million Children (Washington D.C. New Republic Book Co., 1976), p. 101

11. Children's Defense Fund, op. cit.m p. 79

12. Ibid., p. 120

APPLICATION OF KOHLBERG'S THEORY
OF
COGNITIVE MORAL DEVELOPMENT
TO
TEACHER EDUCATION

Fred A. DiNapoli
March 24, 1977

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I. Introduction

A. Statement of Purpose

This paper attempts to justify Kohlberg's theory as applicable to teacher education and demonstrates one application.

B. Rationale

I chose Kohlberg's theory of cognitive moral development as my area of study for the following reasons:

1. The implications of Kohlberg's research can be applied in a variety of ways to the moral development of teachers during their professional training experience. For example, teachers, during both pre-service and in service training, could use Kohlberg's theory to identify and analyze moral issues in their school.
2. No other major modern educational theory except Kohlberg's contains a universal set of moral principles and stages. Kohlberg organizes moral reasoning into six stages of development which progress from an external orientation of punishment and reward to an internal orientation of individual principles of justice and respect for persons.
3. Kohlberg's moral criteria in Stages 5 and 6 can help teachers understand some elements of ethical behavior.

C. Areas of Focus

The following list identifies the specific areas in this paper:

1. Philosophical and Psychological Aspects of Kohlberg's Theory.
2. Kohlberg's analysis of the moral stages of development.
3. Applications of Kohlberg's theory to teacher education.
4. Critique of Kohlberg's Theory.

D. Expected Outcome

The education of elementary teachers at the University of Pittsburgh will include experiences to enable them to become aware of higher ethical principles and behave in accord with these principles.

E. Assumptions

1. Kohlberg's cognitive developmental approach can be used in the empirical study of moral reasoning and moral growth. In the same way, teachers can study their own moral reasoning and moral growth.

2. Kohlberg's moral criteria in Stages 5 and 6 can be used to examine and evaluate the ethics of teacher behavior.
3. Teachers should demonstrate mature moral action during their professional career.

II. Kohlberg's Theory of Cognitive Moral Development

A. Background of the Theory

Kohlberg's ideas about cognitive moral growth have a philosophic background inspired by John Dewey's "Instrumentalism." Dewey's theory developed as part of the Progmatic philosophy of the late nineteeth and early twentieth centuries, which focused on physical and social experiences and the consequences of behavior as the basis of education. Dewey states that experience is the result of the interaction of the individual and his environment, and that growth occurs when one reflects upon and gains meaning from his experiences. According to Dewey, education should aim to raise the student's level of thinking and enable him to elevate his behavior to a higher stage.

Dewey postulated, according to Kohlberg, three levels of moral development: 1) the pre-moral or pre-conventional level "of behavior motivated by biological and social impulses with results for morals," 2) the conventional level of behavior "in which the individual accepts with little critical reflection the standards of his group," and 3) the autonomous level of behavior in which "conduct is guided by the individuals thinking and judging for himself whether a purpose is good without the standard of his group without reflection."[1]

The next major thinker in this history is Piaget. Where Dewey's three stages were theoretical, Piaget's were empirical. Like Dewey's "Instrumentalism," Piaget's "Cognitive Developmental" approach also focuses upon the individual's interaction with his social environment. Piaget systematically observed and conversed with children and identified patterns in their thinking which he called mental structures: the thinking processes underlying cognitive and moral judgment.

Piaget organized these mental structures into three distinct systems of moral thought which he identified as the pre-moral, the heteronomous, and the autonomous stages.[2] In the pre-moral stage, there is no sense of obligation to rules. In the heteronomous stage one obeys rules and equates obligations with submission to power and punishment (roughly ages 4-8). In the autonomous stage one considers the purposes and consequences of following rules and bases obligation on reciprocity and exchange (roughly ages 8-12). Kohlberg's first three stages of cognitive moral development (Stage 1 - Avoid Punishment, Stage 2 - Self-Benefit, Stage 3 - Acceptance by Others) correspond to Piaget's stages (Stage 1 - Pre-moral, Stage 2 - Heteronomous, Stage 3 - Autonomous).

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[1] Lawrence Kohlberg "The Cognitive Developmental Approach to Moral Education" Phi Delta Kappan 56 (1975):670

[2] Ibid.

B. Kohlberg's Analysis of Moral Stages

In 1955, Kohlberg and his colleagues began cross-cultural and longitudinal research in an effort to redefine and validate the Dewey-Piaget levels and stages. This research, conducted over twelve years, consisted of moral interviews conducted with boys ages nine to twenty-three in various countries around the world; for instance, Great Britain, Canada, Taiwan, Mexico, Turkey and the United States. Kohlberg found that regardless of differences in cultures, discernible in all were similar developmental stages of moral reasoning which contain the following empirical characteristics:

1. All stages are "structured wholes" or organized systems of thought. A Stage 3 individual's moral reasoning almost never varies from trying to gain the approval of others whether the issue involves obedience to the law, affection between friends or justice and punishment.
2. All stages are "hierarchical integrations." Kohlberg's claim that individuals should be stimulated to higher stages of cognitive moral development is grounded on certain moral criteria such as differentiation, integration and universality. At higher stages, the ability to differentiate between such values as life and property are gradually developed and integrated in a hierarchy (for example, life logically ranks higher than property because property sustains life). Finally, at higher stages of cognitive moral development moral issues can be judged according to universal, abstract principles such as equality and justice.
3. All stages form an "invariant sequence" with no omission possible at any stage, although an individual may cease developing at any stage. Also, development from Stages 1 to 6 proceed at individual rates.

As for the moral levels and stages themselves, Kohlberg identified three major age-related levels of moral reasoning which he called pre-conventional, conventional and post-conventional.[3] The pre-conventional level is characteristic of children between the ages of four and ten. Children of this age, because they have not yet developed a sense of morality, can engage in very cruel behavior when no fear of punishment is present. The individuals control of conduct is oriented to external commands and pressures. The individual is motivated to avoid external punishment and to obtain rewards. At Stage 1, the individual respects authority because parents and other adults are stronger than he is. He tries to avoid punishment because it is painful and seeks reward because it is pleasurable.

The conventional leveldevelops between approximately ages ten (10) to eighteen (18). It is essentially a conformist orientation. The individual's control of conduct is still externally oriented in that standards conformed to are rules of personal relationships or delegated authorities. Unlike the pre-conventional level, the motivation to conform in this level is internalized. The individual conforms to rules because these rules are made by those important to him. The individual identifies with the group and values performing his duty to maintain order within the group. He is able to take the role of others and respects judgments they make about him, demonstrating this respect by actively maintaining, supporting and justifying the order of the group.

The post-conventional level is one which only a few reach. On this level, control of conduct is internal to the individual. Decisions regarding actions are arrived at by reasoning in terms of the individual's values regarding right and wrong. For him, these values, such as equality and justice, have validity and application apart from the authority of the groups or persons who hold them and from individuals identified with those persons or groups.

Each of these three levels includes two sub levels, making a sum total of six identifiable stages, as follows:

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[3] Lawrence Kohlberg, "The Child as a Moral Philosopher,' Psychology Today 2:4 (September 1968), pp. 25-30. Copyright @ 1968 Ziff-Davis Publishing Company.

1. The preconventional level (approximate ages: 4-10)

   Stage 1: Orientation toward punishment and unquestioning deference to superior power. The physical consequences of action regardless of their human meaning or value determine its goodness or badness.

   Stage 2: Right action consists of that which instrumentally satisfies one's own needs and occasionally the needs of others. Human relations are viewed in terms like those of the marketplace. Elements of fairness, of reciprocity and equal sharing are present, but they are always interpreted in a physical, pragmatic way. Reciprocity is a matter of "you scratch my back and I'll scratch yours" not of loyalty, gratitude or justice.

2. The conventional level (approximate ages: 10-18)

   Stage 3: Good-boy-good girl orientation. Good behavior is that which pleases or helps others and is approved by them. There is much conformity to stereotypical images of what is majority or "natural" behavior. Behavior is often judged by intention-"he means well" becomes important for the first time, and is overused, as by Charlie Brown in Peanuts. One seeks approval by being "nice."

   Stage 4: Orientation toward authority, fixed rules and the maintenance of the social order. Right behavior consists of doing one's duty, showing respect for authority and maintaining the given social order for its own sake. One earns respect by performing dutifully.

3. The postconventional level (approximate ages: 18 onwards)

   Stage 5: A social-contract orientation, generally with legalistic and utilitarian overtones. Right action tends to be defined in terms of general rights and in terms of standards which have been critically examined and agreed upon by the whole society. There is a clear awareness of the relativism of personal values and opinions and a corresponding emphasis upon procedural rules for reaching consensus. Aside from what is constitutionally and democratically agreed upon, right or wrong is a matter of personal "values" and "opinion." The result is an emphasis upon the "legal point of view," but with an emphasis upon the possibility of changing law in terms of rational considerations of social utility, rather than freezing it in the terms of Stage 4 "law and order."

Outside the legal realm, free agreement and contract are the binding elements of obligation. This is the "official morality of American government, and finds its ground in the thought of the writers of the Constitution.

Stage 6: Orientation towards the decisions of conscience and toward self-chosen ethical principles appealing to logical comprehensiveness, universality and consistency. These principles are abstract and ethical (the Golden Rule, the categorical imperative); they are not concrete moral rules like the Ten Commandments. Instead, they are universal principles of justice, of the reciprocity and equality of human rights, and of respect for the dignity of human beings as individual persons.

III. A Strategy for Developing Teachers' Moral Reasoning

In this section, I describe a process which may be used to help pre-service and inservice teachers develop:

Sensitivity to moral issues that arise in a school system.

Consciousness of one's own moral reasoning.

Ability to analyze moral dilemmas, describing and categorizing the type of moral reasoning involved.

Ability to use the criteria of the post-conventional level to develop elements of ethical teaching behavior.

A. The Teaching Process

The Teaching Process consists of four phases for the participants: 1) confrontation with a moral dilemma, 2) statement of a tentative position 3) discussion and analysis of moral issues, and 4) reconsideration of their individual positions. The two major roles involved in this process are: 1) facilitator, who initiates the confronted dilemma and guides discussion and 2) participants, who react to the moral dilemma by identifying and analyzing the reasoning involved in moral decisions. During the teaching process, the facilitator encourages the participants to provide evidence and reasons for stating a position. Whenever role playing is used, to present a dilemma or enhance discussion, the participants are further divided into performers and observers.

In the first phase, participants are given an account of a moral dilemma which they are asked to respond to. A moral dilemma is a situation in which universal values, such as sanctity of life and the need for authority, come into conflict. After the dilemma has been presented, through methods as role-playing, reading of newspaper articles, listening to audio-tapes and viewing films, the facilitator makes sure the participants can state its circumstances, clarifies unclear terminology, and makes certain the participants understand the moral problem. In the second phase, the participants state a tentative position on the moral dilemma. First, the facilitator allows time for participants to think about where they stand on the moral issues of the dilemmas. Next, the participants write down their positions and their supportive reasons. The facilitator should emphasize that there are no right or wrong answers but the soundness of one's argument is what counts.

In the third phase, the participants work in small groups which can be divided homgeneously, with all members agreeing and heterogeneously, with members disagreeing to discuss and analze the moral issues in the dilemma. Discussion should focus on the value principles involved and the consequences of the various moral decisions. As one small group strategy, each group member assumes a particular role in the dilemma and articulates, from that perspective, what the central character in the dilemma should do and why. The group then discusses why a character believes a particular action is right. As another group strategy, the members react to a set of questions which consider specific moral issues in the dilemma. The undecided may be involved in two ways. They may listen in on a group and ask questions about members reasons for particular positions; they may form a separate group to develop a list of questions which they would like to have answered by the other groups to help them reach a decision. Each group at the end of its discussion, will analyze the positions discussed in terms of Kohlberg's six stages of moral reasoning.

In the fourth phase, the large group reconvenes to reconsider the various positions they have taken. Participants may be asked to summarize the reasoning they have heard during the discussion or to restate their positions, possibly revised, as a result of having heard others' opinions.

B. Sample Teaching Plan

1. Confront moral dilemma

   a. Have participants read and discuss the following moral dilemma:

      > Jim is a member of a teachers' union that has been on strike for two months. The school board insists that not enough funds are available to pay the union's salary demands. The local courts have issued an injunction ordering teachers back on the job. Members of the teachers' union met and voted to disobey this injunction. Jim did not want to disobey the law so he thought of going back to work.

   b. Ask some of the following questions to the group.

      1. Should Jim go back to work? Why?
      2. Do local courts have the right to order teachers back to the classroom? Why?
      3. To whom should a teacher's primary responsibility be? Why?

2. State tentative position

   a. Allow the participants some time to think about where they stand on the moral issues involved in the dilemma.

   b. Ask participants to state their individual positions and reasoning behind their positions.

   c. Determine through discussion how each member of the total group stands on moral issues involved in the dilemma. Encourage participants to provide reasons for their position.

3. Discuss and analyze moral issues

   a. Provide each participant with a card representing the various roles involved in the story (i.e., Teacher, Judge, Union Representative, School Board Member, Concerned Parent).

   b. Ask the participants to imagine that they are at a special meeting to decide what action should be taken.

   c. Divide the large group into small groups to role-play this situation. Ask group members to state the position that they feel best represents the particular role they are playing. After each group member states his reasoning behind a particular position, reenact the situation with group members assuming different roles.

   d. Ask group members to discuss and evaluate the various positions.

   e. Examine the consequences of each position.

   f. Use Kohlberg's six stages of moral reasoning to analyze the various positions taken.

4. Reconsider individual positions
    a. Total group reconvenes.
    b. Ask participants to summarize their experiences and share with entire group.
        1. Ask participants to think about the reasons given by the opposition.
        2. Ask participants to recollect on the chalkboard the reasons given during the discussion and ask for a rank order.
    c. Ask participants to restate their reasons for a particular position.
        1. Encourage participants to add any new ideas or phrases which they heard during the discussion which they thought were especially important.
        2. Ask the participants to record any changes which they discovered about their own thinking.

IV. Critique of Kohlberg's Theory

The aim of moral education is to advance the student as far as possible in his moral reasoning and action. Kohlberg has done much to help educators achieve this aim by suggesting a process of what developmental improvement would be. Through extensive cross-cultural research on the development of levels of moral reasoning he documented, in many countries, the universality of his six moral stages, which offer educators a good foundation for building moral education programs.

Kohlberg's research can be applied to teacher education in two ways:

1. As a diagnostic tool for making assessments about moral development.
   In making assessments about students' moral reasoning, teachers could use Kohlberg's criteria (i.e., norms, expected standards) for each stage. For example, if a third grade student told a lie to protect a friend the teacher would understand because children of his age often demonstrate this Stage 2 type of behavior (Instrumental Relativist Orientation). On the other hand if an eighteen year old student also tells a lie to protect a friend it may be a legitimate cause for concern.
2. As a method for discussing moral issues in the classroom.
   Kohlberg's research during the last decade has led to the formulation of a systematic approach to facilitating and developing moral reasoning ability in students.

In the application of Kohlberg's theory to teacher education, however, many problems still exist. One problem is that his implementing strategies, although they are not fully developed, are still only in the planning stage.

Again, in applying Kohlberg's theory to teacher education, Kohlberg's Stages 5 and 6 may indicate a moral development beyond the norms of the school system. Most school systems appear to operate at or below Stage 4 with a law and order orientation; it's rules, established by the school board and central administration, are expected to be supported and maintained by teachers and students. A teacher reasoning at Stage 6 who was certain that I.Q. test results were being misused would have to oppose their administration. He might then be subject to negative criticism from school authorities and might possibly lose his job.

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"The U. S. Supreme Court and School Desegregation: From Plessy to Brown and Beyond"

By

Eugene A. Lincoln*

Your theme for the Third Annual Education Colloquium is: "The Purposes and Goals of the School of Education." The Bulletin states "that the basic purpose of the School of Education is the preparation of personnel for teaching, educational administration, and other specialized fields of work in elementary schools, secondary schools, colleges and universities."[1]

Obviously, the basic purpose includes specific purposes. It seems that one of them is to acquaint students in the School of Education with the contemporary issues in the country that have a direct impact upon education. In this regard, the issue of school desegregation is of tremendous importance.

An effort shall be made here to present a broad picture of school desegregation based upon U.S. Supreme Court decisions. Time has been allotted following the presentation to explore the topic in detail. You may wish to take a few notes.

---

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[1] The University of Pittsburgh School of Education 1976-1978, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, p. 1.

The case of Plessy v. Ferguson[2] is an excellent beginning point for the presentation. In Plessy the Legislature of the State of Louisiana had passed a law that required railway companies to provide separate accommodations for "white and colored" passengers in intrastate travel. Plessy, a person of mixed descent, boarded a passenger train and sat in a coach reserved for the white race. Refusing to move to a coach reserved for the colored race, Plessy was arrested. Later, he sued on grounds that the state law was a violation of the Fourteenth Amendment of the U.S. Constitution.

The U.S. Supreme Court disagreed. It said, in effect, that the Fourteenth Amendment guaranteed civil and political equality of the white and colored races. But it did not give them a right to commingle socially. Further, the Court stated that laws permitting or requiring separation of the races were usually left to the discretion of the state legislature, so long as the laws were reasonable.

Plessy became known for the doctrine that "separate but equal" public facilities for the black and white races were constitutional. It was used by officials as the justification for providing separate schools for black and white students.

Another important case in the area of school desegregation is Brown v. Board of Education.[3] In Brown the U.S. Supreme Court reversed its ruling in *Plessy*.[4] The high Court said that in the field of public education the doctrine of "separate but equal" has no place. One year later, in *Brown* II, the Court ordered all students admitted to public schools on a racially nondiscriminatory basis with "all deliberate speed."[5]

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[2] 16 S. Ct. 1138 (1896).

[3] 74 S. Ct. 686 (1954).

The mandate of *Brown* I and *Brown* II was clear: to desegregate the public schools with all deliberate speed. The term "desegregation" was later used by the Court to refer to the assignment of students:

> . . . to public schools and within such schools without regard to their race, color, religion, or national origin, but [the term did] *not mean the assignment of students to public schools in order to overcome racial imbalance.* (Underlines added)

What the term "desegregation" did *not* mean was probably as important as its intended meaning. The term did *not* mean that students were required to be assigned to public schools to overcome racial imbalance, i.e., to achieve integration. Rather, the intended meaning was that school officials could not use factors such as race as the basis for the assignment of students to public schools.

Somewhat more ambiguous than the term "desegregation" was the phrase "all deliberate speed." Regardless of the meaning of the phrase,

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[4] The case, decided in 1954, is commonly known as *Brown* I.

[5] 75 S. Ct. 757 (1955).

[6] *Swann v. Charlotte-Mecklenburg Board of Education*, 91 S. Ct. 1276 (1971).

14 years later the Court took the position that "continued operation of segregated schools under a standard of allowing 'all deliberate speed' for desegregation is no longer constitutionally permissable."[7] Consequently, dual school districts were ordered dismantled immediately, instead of with all deliberate speed, and unitary school districts established "now and hereafter."[8]

Cases such as Brown I, Brown II, and Alexander provided a framework for the Court to decide other school desegregation cases. In deciding each case, the question of overriding importance was: Whether the defendant school district was in compliance with the mandate of Brown I and Brown II?

An answer to the question often depended upon whether or not the school district was racially segregated by state law prior to Brown I. If the district was segregated, it was in compliance with the Brown decisions only upon a finding by the Court that "all vestiges" of the state-imposed segregation had been eliminated.[9] Further, a finding that "all vestiges" had been removed meant that in the absence of evidence in the future of deliberate racial discrimination by local and/or state officials, there was no need for further intervention by the courts.[10]

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[7] Alexander v. Holmes County Board of Education, 90 S. Ct. 29 (1969).

[8] The term "dual" school district refers to a district where students are assigned to schools on a racially discriminatory basis. The term "unitary" school district refers to a district where students are assigned to schools on a racially nondiscriminatory basis. A school district may have a racial imbalance and be "unitary," if students are assigned to schools in the district without regard to race, color, religion, or national origin.

[9] See, for example, Bradley v. School Board of the City of Richmond, Va., 93 S. Ct. 1952 (1973).

If the defendant school district was not racially segregated prior to Brown I, the Court determined whether there was evidence of post-Brown racial discrimination in the district. For example, racial discrimination may have been the result of deliberate and intentional conduct by local and/or state officials.[11] Upon a finding of post-Brown racial discrimination, the Court ordered the school district to desegregate.

The U.S. Supreme Court has decided a number of cases that give guidance to school districts in their efforts to desegregate. Perhaps the leading case was Swann.[12] In Swann the Court said that in an attempt to achieve school desegregation (1) limited use may be made of mathematical ratios in the assignment of black and white students; (2) school attendance zones may be altered; and (3) students may be bussed reasonable distances.[13]

On the other hand, the Court has repeatedly rejected "freedom-of-choice"[14] and "free-transfer"[15] school desegregation plans. The plans were not rejected because they were unconstitutional. Rather, they were not effective in achieving school desegregation.

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[10] Swann, op. cit., p. 1284

[11] Keyes V. School District No. 1, Denver, Colorado, 93 S. Ct. 2686 (1973).

[12] Swann, op. cit., p. 1267.

[13] Ibid., p. 1270

In summary, cases pertaining to racial discrimination have been heard by the U.S. Supreme Court for decades. However, it was not until 1954, in Brown I, that the Court found unconstitutional "separate but equal" public schools for black and white students. The following year, in Brown II, the Court ordered all public schools to desegregate. This did not mean that all public schools were required to be racially balanced. Instead, it meant that school officials could not use factors such as race as the basis for the assignment of students to public schools. From Brown I and II to the present, the U.S. Supreme Court has decided numerous school desegregation cases. In all of them the Court's overriding concern was whether defendant school district was in compliance with the Brown decisions. If in compliance, there usually was no need for further intervention by the courts. If not in compliance, the school district was ordered to desegregate.

Thank you.

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[14] Green v. County School Board of New Kent County, Virginia, 88 S. Ct. 1989 (1968).

[15] Monroe v. Board of Commissioners, 88 S. Ct. 1700 (1968).

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AN INVESTIGATION OF TEACHERS PERCEPTIONS OF TRAINED SUPERVISORS COMPARED WITH TEACHERS PERCEPTIONS OF UNTRAINED SUPERVISORS

University of Pittsburgh
Curriculum and Supervision

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1976

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I. THE PROBLEM

A. Introduction

There are many different classifications of supervisors in the public schools and there are divergent methods, procedures, and techniques for the supervision of teachers. Some school districts employ full time subject area supervisors. In others one person may supervise all subjects.

Many supervisors teach part of the day. Several school districts have no supervisors. In many buildings the principals supervise or the vice-principals observe and evaluate the classroom teachers. At the national, state and local levels supervisors work with varietal pre-service preparation, job descriptions and credentials. There are no clearly defined or ascendant principles within the states and the local school districts that separate supervisors and supervision into an educational normality. Local custom, precedent or regulations have determined the proper role of supervisors and supervision within the respective districts.

With so many different classifications of supervisors and a multi-faceted modus operandi of supervision, the training and preparation for supervision, by those who do supervise, might range from a doctorate in curriculum and supervision to no formal course work in the supervision of teachers.

The diversity of the kinds of supervision within the states and local districts creates corresponding differences in the professional backgrounds of individuals selected to be supervisors. These differences in the training, background and experiences, has resulted in diversified approaches to classroom supervision. It is not uniform. The practitioners do not all have the same credentials. They claim to perform the same basic task: supervision. Yet, the training, skills, credentials, techniques and methods of supervisors are dissimilar. Supervisors who observe and rate teachers may have a little training, no training or extensive training in the supervision of classroom instruction. The kind of supervisory experiences provided for the teachers may be dependent upon the faculty's perceptions of the supervision they recieve. Therefore, the foci of this research paper are 1) to assess the teachers perceptions of supervisors who have different professional backgrounds, 2) to assess these perceptions using a sample of teachers in the public schools.

B. Statement of the Problem

The purposes of this paper are: 1) to assess teachers perceptions of supervisors with different professional backgrounds, 2) to assess teachers perceptions of the personal esteem they have for the supervisory process when they are supervised by trained supervisors and untrained supervisors.

C. Elements of the Problem

To develop a rationale for using teachers perceptions of supervision as a means of evaluating the teachers esteem for the supervisory process.

To assess teachers perceptions of the supervision they recieve from both trained and untrained supervisors.

To assess teachers perceptions of supervisors and supervision by using

1. An 18 question nationaly standarized instrument that assesses teachers perceptions of supervision and evaluation.

2. A personally designed 25 question instrument that assess teachers perceptions of their personal supervision. This instrument

contains key questions that relate to the style and behavior of trained supervisors.

D. Delimitations

1. The data will ignore the sex of the teachers reporting their perceptions.

2. The study will be conducted in four public schools in Western Pennsylvania.

E. Limitations

1. The supervisors used in the study do not supervise the same level of teaching, e.g. both elementary and secondary supervisors were employed in the study.

2. All of the supervisors do not supervise the exact same number of teachers.

3. The two instruments may not elicit some subtle but important aspects of teachers perceptions of the supervision they receive.

4. Socioeconomic background, age, and experience of the teachers may cause distortions of the perceptions of supervisory behavior.

F. Definition of Terms

1. Teachers- Certified teaching member of a public school.

2. Perception- Refers to the relative smoothness of operation in day-to-day living that reflects the fact that one person is in some degree aware of what another person does, feels, wants, and is about to do. (Tagiuri and Petrullo, 1958, p. 10)

3. Untrained Supervisor- A supervisor who never recieved any formal training in the supervision of classroom teaching.

4. Trained Supervisor- A supervisor who enrolled and earned graduate credits from an accredited university in the supervision of classroom instruction.

G. Hypotheses (Null)

1. There will be no significant differences in teachers perceptions of trained supervisors compared to teachers perceptions of untrained supervisors.

2. There will be no significant differences in teachers perceptions of their schools supervision and evaluation if the supervisors are trained compared to teachers perceptions of their schools supervision and evaluation if the supervisors are untrained.

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The purpose of the review of the literature was to organize confines out of which a rationale would be developed. Therefore, the major sections of this review of literature are: (a) the perceptual process, (b) research on teachers perceptions of supervision, (c) a rationale.

A. The Perceptual Process

Our senses are sometimes referred to as our "avenues to the world". (Mueller, 1965)

> Although this statement does not tell us much about the senses, it does remind us that the only way we have of responding to the outside world is on the basis of information received, and operated on, by our sensory systems. (p. 2)

The problem of perception is to give an account of the relationship of sense - experience to material objects. (Quinton, 1955)

> This relationship has traditionally been seen as logical, a matter of showing how beliefs about objects can be established or supported by what we know in immediate experience. (pp. 28-51)

Hirst (1959) stated:

> First it is believed that we live in a world of persons, animals, plants and material things, and that perceiving is the way we find out about this world and its contents. More formally: each of us is a member of a common spatio-temporal system of interacting and enduring entities, and perceiving is a relation between a person and other entities by which he discovers their nature and characteristics.
>
> Secondly, perceiving seems to be a straightforward confrontation or direct awareness, a simple looking or hearing and so on.
>
> Thirdly, it is held that by perception we can ascertain the real nature and characteristics of most other entities. (pp. 16-17)

Jerome Bruner (1958) believes we do three things when we percieve: we select, we recode and we deal with the overload of available information.

Fiorello (1975) stated:

> Selectivity directs our attention to the most essential things in a particular activity. Recoding allows us to assimilate the events we encounter into simpler forms and information overload may be dealt with by simply ignoring, by acknowledging its existence and then forgetting it, or by categorizing it. (p. 73)

Wallack (1951) explains the perceptual process:

> I look around in a familiar environment and find that nearly every object has meaning. This meaning I experience as an objective fact and I percieve it out there. A hammer looks like something with which to drive a nail into a wall or something with which to smash a vase. I have the impression that I percieve these meanings in the object even while I realize that they do not come to me through my eyes at the moment of perceiving them but must be furnished by a memory function, for they were given by previous experience with the object. (p. 6)

The combined mental process that witnesses, classifies and either ignores or forgets the object or the person is perception. The object (hammer) is seen. It is identified (selection). It is functionalized (decoding). It is forgotten, ignored or categorized.

Memory and the individuals previous experience are also essential in the perceptual process.

Hastorf, Schneider and Polefka stated:

> In addition to his sensory nervous system, his past experience and motivational state were seen to have an impact on how these stimuli are processed. Contemporary research in perception emphasizes the joint contributions of the physical stimulus and of the individual to his knowledge of the world. (p. 121)

Hamyln (1965) said that perception is an interaction between the organism and the environment. The interaction between the two causes objects to mean something. (Pronko and Bowles, p. 228) The awareness of persons, events, objects, qualities, relationships, or situations during the interaction invokes a selection and recoding process. It draws upon the individuals past and present knowledge.

All human beings possess the capacity to be perceptive. We have perceptions of objects and perceptions of persons. (Heider, 1954)

> In thing perception we see objects that have color, that are placed within the surrounding space in a particular position, and that have functional properties which make them fit or not fit into our purposes, properties which define their place in the space of means-ends relations, and which also define their possible effects on us. There is a chair on which one can sit, there is an object with which one can cut paper, tie a package, or write a note.
>
> In contrast to things, persons are rarely mere manipulanda; rather they are action centers, they can do something to us, they can benefit or harm us intentionally, and we can benefit or harm them. Persons are percieved as having abilities, as acting purposefully, as having wishes or sentiments, as perceiving or watching us. They are systems having representations, they can be our friends or our enemies, and each has his characteristic traits. (p. 22)

Because all human perception is determined by color, space and functional properties in objects, and by the awareness of the existence of an intricate system of unpredictable variables in persons, human beings begin to mentally systematize the relationship between themselves, objects, and persons immediately upon confronting them. There is human input and human output in the perceptual process.

Dember (1960) said:

> A perceptual system is one which relates out put to input. The study of perception is the study of such systems as they occur in living organisms. (p. 6)

When people confront either objects or other people the perceptive process commences.

Dember (1960) stated:

> Living organisms emit behavior: they have out put. Unlike the output of some machines, the output of organisms is dependent upon the energy impinging on them - that is, upon their input. The aspect of energy relevant to psychology is its informative character. Information may impinge on the organism from its surrounding environment, by way of its exteroreceptors, or as feedback from its own behavior. To the extent that an organism - or a machine for that matter - is responsive to input from either source, it can be said to contain a perceptual system. In particular, perception is the study of systems that relate out put to input. (p.24)

Because the perceptive process requires input and out put a categorizing system evolves between the organisms.

> How you categorize and perceive me will influence how you behave toward me, and your behavior, in turn will influence how I behave. Our point for the moment, is to stress the role the selecting and categorizing activities of the perceiver play in creating his perceptions of the other and in producing structure in his world or other people. (Hastorf et al., 1970. p. 13)

The human facility to integrate the data of perceptual input facilitates the process of perceptual out put. Human transactions cause a matrix of reflective mental processing and selection of the data on the part of the participants.

Welford states:

> Perception involves both a selection from, and an integration of, the data conveyed to the brain from the sense organs. Selection seems to be made in terms of both simple sensory qualities and more complex semantic aspects of incoming data, and appears to result in "unwanted" data being in a very real sense attenuated". (Welford, 1972. p. 5)

This process may be automatic. People might not even be aware of it.

> This evaluation of other persons, important as it is in our existence, is largely automatic, one of the things we do without knowing much about the "principles" in terms of which we operate. Regardless of the skill which an adult may have in appraising others, he engages in the process most of the time without paying much attention to how he does it. (Tagiuri and Petrullo, 1958. p. 9)

Because the perceptual process is initiated by an integration of the human senses and past knowledge the individual systematizes the input and out put of the interaction that causes the perceptual process into personalized data that becomes meaningful to him. An orderly and reflective mental process provides him with a point of view toward the object that set going the perceptual transaction. We think. We organize. We evaluate. A personal frame of reference develops between ourselves and the object we perceive. Subsequent human actions are as a result of the "stimuli" that incited the perception. A change in behavior occurs.

Kimble and Garmezy (1963) stated:

> It is important to recognize perception as a concept, or intervening variable. Put most simply, the concept of perception describes the relationship found to exist between certain kinds of stimulus events and certain behavioral facts. Most perceptual acts produce stimuli that are of value in interpreting the perceptual event. The perceptual act must terminate in some form of response that provides an indication of the perceptual behavior of the subject. (pp. 316-317)

Smith stated:

> Perception is personal intake. To perceive means to recognize, to acknowledge, to interpret, to be aware of, to identify with, to associate. (Smith, 1969. pp. 57-64)

Because human perceptions are determined by human input and human out out it is important to understand how a human being establishes a perceptual world. The perceptual world is determined by past knowledge and personal experiences. It must materialize into an orderly and significant process that achieves order from disorder. It has structure, stability and is meaningful.

Hastorf et al. (1970) stated:

> Without structure, stability and meaning events would make no sense. With them, our perceptions define a predictable world, an orderly stage for us to act on.

Our senses organize all entities into qualitative divisions. They are given structure, stability and meaning.

Field (1973) stated:

> The qualities (of all entities) are perceive through our senses. By quantitatively extending them along their lines of contrast we concieve of an entity (object, area or person). To be an entity it must have an enclosing perimeter forming a unit. Other than a portion of a homogeneous mass it requires symmetry when classifying it. Symmetry is measured as extention and is quantitative.
>
> The act of receiving the qualitative divisions from which we divide the perceptive field into quantitative entities is an instantaneous or spontaneous act. Likewise, further receivings or perceivings are spontaneous; however, they are not the same act and there is a time lag between in which the mind may be intuiting and inducting in trying to classify the concept. (p.24)

It is now necessary to examine how a perceptional world is formed in social settings.

Human beings are perceptive of other human beings. The perceptions of living creatures have very characteristic properties (Hochberg, 1969. p.105). Human or person perception may occur as a result of several different types of interaction because persons are "action centers". They can talk, offend, hurt, or alienate. They have an appearance. They can laugh and cry.

Hochberg (1964) stated:

> Most people consider themselves good judges of character, and for selecting the candidate for a job the personal interview remains as testimony to the belief that a person's

future actions can be judged by his appearance.

> The face is an extremely important organ of communication for revealing, concealing, and dissembling states of emotion, desires, feelings, and intentions. (pp. 105-108)

One mode of human behavior incites a reverberating mood of human behavior in the perceiver.

> We organize all human behavior into intent-act-effect units, and that procedure not only enables us to develop some behavioral organization but also permits and even pushes us to develop some hypotheses covering the enduring intents and dispositions or personality traits. (Hastorf et al., 1970. pp. 15-16)

Much of our behavior is influenced by our perceptions of persons and objects.

> Behavior is one of the main sources of stimulation, and it is both complex and ever changing. One of the ways we make sense out of the complexity is to make inferences that go beyond the behavioral data. We perceive other people as causal agents, we infer intentions, we infer emotional states, and we go further to infer enduring dispositions or personality. traits. (Hastorf et al., 1970. p. 17)

Human beings organize, coordinate and synthesize their perceptions of others. (Cassirer, 1969)

> Perception too cannot be understood in its specific nature, meaning, and total structure without the assumption of (human) organization, coordination and synthesis. (p. 23)

As one person encounters another the perceptual process begins. Human input and out put becomes an abstract commodity of structure, stability and meaning that fuses with past knowledge to organize and coordinate "a" perception. The perception exists because of a synthesis of integrated personal data that is available to the perciever. This causes a change in human behavior because human behavior becomes a product of the perceptual veil. Gogers (1975) validates the veil of human perception.

He says the following about the veil of human perceptions:

1. That there are minds.
2. That there is an independently existing objective world separate from minds.
3. That the mind can come to know, or at least truly believe, some things about the objective and independent world.
4. That the mind comes to know or truly believe some of those things as a result of a (causal) link between the objective world and the mind.
5. That the mind comes to know or truly believe I some propositions or propositions.
6. That the mind comes to know or truly believe those propositions on the basis of an awareness of certain things which are presented directly to it.
7. That those things which are presented to it are numerically different things from the things in the outside objective world.
8. That there are some properties which the things presented to the mind have which are either similar or identical with the properties which things in the outside world have.
9. That it is because there is this identity or similarity that it is possible for minds to come to know or truly believe certain things about the outside world. (pp. 210-224)

The world "is" as "it" is percieved. Human behavior is modified by what we know or truly believe from our perceptions of persons and objects. Human perception establishes order and meaning in persons and objects. The perceiver "sees something" in the person or the object that he perceives. This "something" becomes a stimuli that establishes a point of reference between the perceiver and the perceived. A personal assessment of its true meaning follows. It might become good or bad, positive or negative, or neutral.

B. Teachers Perceptions of Supervisors and Supervision

Because all human beings do develop a veil of perceptions about objects and persons, public school teachers will develop perceptions of their supervisors and supervision. It is important now to investigate teachers perceptions of supervisors and supervision.

Research in the past ten years has developed the following principles concerning teachers perceptions of supervisors and supervision.

1. Teachers perceptions of supervision is an active process involving an interaction between the teacher and the supervisor.

2. The teachers perceptions of the value of their supervision is related to their personal perceptions of the manner in which they are supervised.

3. The teachers perceptions of supervision is influenced by the style and behavior of the supervisor.

The following paragraphs provide additional information about the three principles of teachers perceptions of supervision.

1. Teachers perceptions of supervision is an active process involving an interaction between the teacher and the supervisor. The teacher organizes, coordinates and synthesises what he "sees" in the supervisor.

Blumber (1963), Blumber and Amidon (1965) and Amidon and Powell (1966) describe this process as an active interchange of human input and out put between the supervisor and the teacher. The teacher reacts to what he "sees" in the supervisor.

Churukian and Cryan (1972), Churukian (1970) and Linemann (1970) researched the different types of interaction between the teachers and the supervisors. The teachers do develop a personal perception of supervision.

Masher and Purpel (1972) said:

> The teachers may see manner, warmth, empathy, authoritarianism tough - mindedness and the like. (p.6)

The meeting between the teacher and the supervisor incites behavior change in the teacher that results from the teachers perceptual scan of his supervision.

The teachers perceptions of supervision are related to past experiences in supervision and immediate assessments of "what" they "see" in their supervision. (Osborne and Grace, 1971)

2. The teachers perceptions of the value of their supervision is related to their personal perceptions of the manner in which they are supervised.

Cogan (1973) stated:

> It immediately becomes evident that the relationship to be established between teacher and clinical supervisor has important consequenses - pedagogical, ethical, medico-legal, psychological and strategic. (p. 2)

Wiles (1967) said:

> Any supervisory action involves working with another person. If the interaction between the supervisor and the others with whom he hopes to relate is not real communication, neither the supervisor nor the other person is deeply affected. (p. 65)

Teachers evaluate the supervisory encounter as being significant in their professional lives and meaningful for their personal lives. They will listen to the supervisor but they want this advice to be personalized.

Berman and Usery (1966) stated:

> One way to make necessary differences in schooling for children and youth is through the personalizing of teacher-superviser interchanges. By personalizing is meant the meeting of another at a level and through a means which is central to the concerns, interests, ideas,

> and modes of thinking and feeling of the other. Personalizing is responding at the level of personality where a strategic impact can be made. At times this meeting of teacher and supervisor may go beyond the traditional "helping" of the teacher to an interaction situation in which both the supervisor and teacher are enhanced by the confrontation. (pp. 1-2)

Amidon and Powell(1966) and Churukian and Cryan (1972) describe the process of teacher and supervisor as a social process which involves interaction between two or more people. The most important elements of the supervisory relationship are the ability of the supervisors to communicate effectively with teachers and to act in a manner that they (teachers) feel will lead to a positive relationship.

Unless supervisory behavior is percieved properly by the teachers it becomes futile. (Blumberg and Cusick, 1970)

3. The teachers perceptions of supervision is influenced by the style and behavior patterns of the supervisor.

Because the teacher translated the supervisors behavior into intent-act-effect units everything that the supervisor does will be perceived by the teacher as being positive or negative.

Blumberg stated:

> In general, differential perceptions of supervisory behavioral styles are related to differential perceptions of the state of interpersonal relations that exist between a teacher and a supervisor (pp. 34-35)

The teachers "watch" and "listen" to the supervisor. They perceive a behavior and a style.

> When the supervisors and teachers confront each other, the former communicates various observations and generally makes his assistance available. But the manner in which the supervisor conducts himself and the information he attempts to transmit are elements crucial to the outcome of the conference. (Blumberg and Amidon, 1965. pp. 41-46)

The personal behavior and the supervisory style of the supervisor influences the interaction with the teacher. Logan (1962) isolated several variables of supervisory style and behavior that negated effective teacher supervisory relations. Blumberg and Weber (1968) and Foster (1959) described some specific actions by supervisors that influence teachers perceptions of supervision. The teachers can make distinctions between "good" or "bad" supervision and "good" and "bad" personal behavior or supervisory style.

Because teachers do have different perceptions of supervision and can distinguish between different types of supervision they are able to classify perceived supervisory behavior into particular types. Each type of perceived supervisory behavior incites an individual reaction by the teachers. This reaction may be positive or negative. They see the role of supervision as "good" or "bad". It becomes "meaningful" or "futile". The teachers are able to say why they make the conclusions that they do about the perceptions of supervision.

C . Rationale

The following conclusions provide a rationale for the use of teachers perceptions of their supervision to distinguish differences in kinds of supervision that teachers recieve. These represent a synthesis of the literature on perceptions and teachers perceptions of supervision.

1. Teachers perceptions of supervision offer one valid indication of different kinds of supervision.

2. Teachers perceptions of supervision are based upon personal reactions to the style and behavior of the supervisor.

3. Teachers are able to detect differences in the style and behavior of supervisors.

4. Teachers are able to classify different kinds of supervision into positive or negative supervision.

The four conclusions are supported by combining data from previous sections:

1. Teachers perceptions of supervision offer one valid indication of the teachers ability to notice different kinds of supervision.

The literature on perception indicates that human beings organize, coordinate and synthesis information in order to establish structure, stability and meaning in objects and persons. Past experiences are important in this process. When the teacher meets with the supervisor an interaction of human input and out put commences between the two. The teacher is left with a perception. Future meetings between the two will add to the teachers perceptions. Eventually the teacher will develop a stable and clear perception of his supervisor. Changes in supervisory style and behavior will cause changes in the perception. Teachers "see" differences in supervision.

2. Teachers perceptions of supervision are based upon their personal reactions to the style and behavior of the supervisor.

Adequate empirical evidence supports the contention that teachers perceptions of supervision change considerably with noticeable modification in the style and behavior of the supervisor.

3. Teachers are able to detect differences in the style and behavior of supervisors.

Teachers do not see all supervision as being the same. Each supervisor creates a unique type of supervision that is the sum of his personal style and behavior as percieved by the teacher. Teachers are aware of these differences and value the productivity of the supervision in terms of how the supervisor "behaves".

4. Teachers are able to classify different kinds of supervision into "good" or "bad" or "positive" and "negative" supervision depending upon their personal perceptions of the style, and behavior of the supervisor. Teachers assess their supervision in terms of how the supervisor personalizes the approach and treats the teacher. They (teachers) are able to separate supervisors and supervision into specific types. They see differences in supervisors and supervsion.

In summarizing,the teachers do have a "perceptual veil" or point of reference towards their supervision. It is valid to use teachers perceptions of supervision and supervisors to investigate percieved differences between trained and untrained supervisors.

III. DESIGN OF THE STUDY

A. Population

The study was conducted in four public schools. Two of these are secondary schools and two are elementary schools. All of the schools are in the suburbs of Pittsburgh.

Setting of the Study:

Schools A and B are large secondary schools in the Northern suburbs of Pittsburgh. The supervisors in these schools are untrained.

Schools C and D are two different elementary school within the same school system. The supervisor in school C has a doctorate in curriculum and supervision and the supervisor in school D has extensive post master work in supervision. These schools are in an eastern suburb of Pittsburgh.

The supervisors in schools A and B supervise about 35 teachers each (Subject area supervisors).

The supervisors in schools C and D supervise about 25 teachers each (Building principals).

All of the supervisors in the study observe and rate each teacher that was used in the study.

A total of 103 teachers were used in the study. All of the teachers in schools C and D were used. All of the teachers in school A and B were used except 10. This was to establish four equal groups of about 25 each. The teachers from schools A and B were chosen by random selection.

B. Description of the Instruments

Two questionnaires were used for this study. One was used to assess general perceptions of supervision and evaluation. The other was used to assess the teachers perceptions of supervision from trained and untrained supervisors.

1. The James M. Young and Robert L. Heichberger School Supervision and Evaluation Questionnaire to Assess Teachers General Perceptions of Supervision and Evaluation. (18 questions)

This instrument was developed by Young and Heinchberger to assess teachers general perceptions of their supervision and evaluation. All of the questions were based on the general concerns related to effective supervision and evaluation as indicated by educators throughout the United States in recent educational publications. It covers all of the important and relevant aspects of supervision as indicated in the professional literature. It contains content and face validity and assesses the teachers perception toward his supervision and evaluation.

It Includes the Following Areas:

1. Need for supervision and evaluation.
2. Perception of supervision.
3. Participation of teachers (in supervision).
4. Evaluation used for diagnostic purposes.
5. Participation of many in evaluation (Who should be included in evaluation).
6. Focus attention on the learner (instead of the teacher).
7. Supervisors perception of teachers philosophy.
8. Evaluation should focus attention on improvement (instead of dismissal).
9. Time spent in supervision (two questions).
10. Kind of supervisor (teacher relationship).
11. Desired supervision program.
12. Present role of principal/supervisor.
13. Effective way to improve instruction.
14. Suggested supervisory/evaluation program.
15. Important humanistic qualities of supervisor.

16. Important teacher attributes.

17. Ways to improve the supervision and evaluation process.

There are ten - yes or no questions, three short essay questions and five multiple choice questions on the Young and Heichberger questionnaire.

2. Personally Designed Instrument to Assess Teachers Perceptions of Trained and Untrained Supervisors.

Because a trained supervisor is given instruction in methods of classroom supervision via, lectures, textbook, seminars and actual practice he develops competencies in the supervision of classroom instruction. He knows something about supervision that the untrained supervisor does not know.

He has read about supervision, practiced it, and listened to the advice of experienced educators who have spent many years supervising teachers. He learns methods, skills and procedures. Because these are based upon extensive research, experience and success they are sound, practical and successful methods of "proper" supervision. As a trained supervisor he does "things" in his supervision that reflect normative practices of trained supervisors. A trained supervisor, thinks, acts, behaves and supervises like a trained supervisor is supposed to think, act, behave and supervise.

The self-designed instrument used in this study asks the teacher to comment about the supervision he recieves. The instrument asks straightforward questions about his supervision. All of the questions probe the teacher as to what he "sees" in his supervision. All of the questions relate to skills that the trained supervisors should have. The teacher is asked if sees the supervisor as a threat. A trained supervisor should not be seen as a threat. The teacher is asked if the supervisor criticizes teaching". The trained supervisor never criticizes.

The instrument, in each of the twenty-five questions, allows the teacher to separate the supervision he receives into a distinct "type". It will either be a practice of a trained supervisor or an untrained one. Each question is directed at soliciting the teachers perception of supervisory skills that the trained supervisor should possess.

Rationale for Using the Personally Designed Instrument for Assessing Teachers Perceptions of Trained Supervisors.

Because teachers do perceives differences in the style and behavior of supervisors and this study is assessing teachers perceptions of trained and untrained supervisors an instrument is needed to measure the differences in supervisory behavior . This can then be classified into 1) Behavior of a trained supervisor, 2) Behavior of an untrained supervisor.

This instrument provides data on teachers perceptions of trained supervisors and teachers perceptions of untrained supervisors. The data from the trained supervisors can be compared with the data from the untrained supervisor.

This instrument has very high face and content validity as correlated with expected supervisory competencies of trained supervisors. It was developed by using the supervisory competencies list from the University of Pittsburghs' Department of Curriculum and Supervision, Summer Workshop at Bethel Park, Pennsylvania, (1969).

Rationale for Using Both the Young and Heichberger Questionnaire and a Personally Designed Instrument to Assess Teachers Perceptions of Supervision.

With two instruments a comparison can be made between the two groups of teachers used in the study: One group with the "trained supervisor" will have perceptions of their general supervision and their personal supervision; the other group with the untrained supervisor will also have a perception of their general supervision as well as their personal supervision. The questionnaires will provide data that can be used to compare teachers perceptions of both groups.

C. General Procedures

One hundred envelopes were assembled and personally delivered to each of the four schools. Each envelope contained 1) a letter of introduction from the researcher explaining the purpose of the study, 2) a letter explaining the directions for filling out the questionnaires, 3) two questionnaires, 4) an envelope to place the finished questionnaires.

The teachers had three days to complete the instrument and return them to the office in sealed envelops . The writer personally picked up the questionnaires.

IV. PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

Within the limitations of this study, the following are the findings:

Hypothesis number one was rejected. There are significant differences in teachers perceptions of trained supervisors compared to teachers perceptions of untrained supervisors.

Hypothesis number two was rejected. There are significant differences in teachers perceptions of their schools supervision and evaluation if the teachers are supervised by trained supervisors compared to teachers who are supervised by untrained supervisors.

In groups A and B the questionnaires were returned from 12 teachers in each of the groups for a total of 24. (Untrained supervisors).

In group C, fourteen questionnaires were returned and in group D, 16 questionnaires were returned for a total of 30. (Trained supervisors).

Statistical examinations provided the following data:

Table A

Means of the Four Groups on Total Score
Unrestricted Least Square Estimates Cell Means

Untrained		Trained	
Group A	Group B	Group C	Group D
67,264	69,667	80,294	70,389

These scores were formulated by giving numerical weights of 4 to an always answer, 3 to a sometimes answer, 2 to a seldom answer and 1 to a never answer in questionnaire two.

In questionnaire one, numerical weights of 3 were given to Yes answers, 2 to a no answer and 1 to a neutral answer.

An anlysis of variance indicates that the overall study is significant. There is a significant difference between groups A and B - untrained, and groups C and D - trained. There is no significant difference between groups A and B.

Table B

Analysis of Variance

Hypothesis	SS	DF	MS	F	P-Value
Groups	1729.00	3	576.33	51.65	P .001
Error	602.52	54	11.16		

Further statistical examination indicates that there is a significant difference between group C and the other three groups. (The supervisor in group C has a doctorate in curriculum and supervision).

The following data indicate that the overall study was significant partly because the difference between group C and the average of groups A, B, and D does not include zero.

Table C

Estimate Contrasts Standard Error of Confidence for Each Row of Hypothesis Test Matrix. The Psi Estimate of the Difference between Groups A and B and D and Group C.

	Row	Psi Est.	Est. S.E.	Low LMT.	UPP. LMT.
Groups A-B-D	1	-8.321	0.970	-11.123	-5.519
Group C-D	2	-1.076	0.897	-13.663	-8.485

An examination of the data indicates major differences between the teachers perceptions of trained supervisors compared with teachers perceptions of untrained supervisors. These major differences concern germane interrelationships between two human beings. As such, the relationship can be assessed in terms of positive or negative values because the verdict of the teacher towards his supervision is based upon cognitive and suspicious impressions of what he "sees" in his supervisor and supervision. He sees competence or sham. He detects misrepresentation or authenticity. He is enlightened or he is perplexed. His perceptual scan can see "goodness" or "badness" and "positiveness" and "negativeness".

The data do not separate the teachers perceptions into "good" and "bad" supervision. However within the limitations of this brief study an important concept does surface that discredits the alleged "supervision" of some supervisors and commends the supervision of others. There exists "supervision" and there exists preferable "supervision". The prevalence of supervision in the schools does not mean that it is preferable or effective supervision. The data indicate that there are misinterpretations of the process of supervision on the part of some supervisors.

Supervisory behavior or practice that is percieved as unfavorable can not be misconstrued as being good or positive.

A close examination of some specific data in the questionnaire support this contention. All of the teachers who have trained supervisors indicated that their supervisors are qualified to observe and rate their teaching performance and that their supervisors were good supervisors. The teachers with untrained supervisors stated that their supervisors were sometimes or seldom qualified to observe and rate them and that their supervisors were not good supervisors.

Table D

-My Supervisor is Qualified to Observe and Rate my Teaching Performance.

Trained supervisors -always 29, sometimes 1, seldom ___, never ___

Untrained supervisors-always ___, sometimes 10, seldom ___, never 15

-My Supervisors is a Good Supervisor.

Trained supervisors -always 30, sometimes ___, seldom ___, never ___

Untrained supervisors-always 2, sometimes 6, seldom 6, never 8

The teachers with trained supervisors do not see the supervisor as a threatening administrator nor do they feel that he (the supervisor) is potentially dangerous to a teacher.

Table E

-I See the Individual Who Supervises Me as a Friend and Colleague rather than as a Threatening Administrator.

Trained supervisors- always 22, sometimes 5, seldom 3, never ___

Untrained supervisors-always ___, sometimes 2, seldom 4, never 16

-The Supervisor is Quite Often Seen as Potentially Dangerous to a Teacher.

Trained supervisors Yes 3 No 27 Neutral ___

Untrained supervisors Yes 21 No 2 Neutral 1

Because the teachers have a negative attitude toward supervision in general they also have a negative attitude towards their personal supervision.

Within the limitations of this study, there is a relationship between the two. A comparison of the data in questionnaire one with the data in questionnaire two indicates that there is a relationship. A causal relationship exists between what the teacher "sees" in his supervisor and his perception of supervision in general.

On questionnaire one the teachers were asked to list ways in which supervision can be improved. They said the following:

1. Ways to Improve Supervision and Evaluation.

Responses of Teachers with Untrained Supervisors.

1. Better understanding of the evaluation process, participation in it, and not only negative comments.
2. Set definite, obtainable goals, which both the teacher and the supervisor see as desirable goals.
3. Decrease the fear of being supervised.
4. More time spent in in-service sessions explaining expectations and procedures used in the evaluation.
5. Have teacher set up resonable objectives to be achieved and the supervisor check on these.
6. A compatibility in study objectives and a sympathy toward human
7. Pre-observation conferences, discussing what is expected, and helping the teacher maintain classroom goals, through these guidelines.
8. Teacher administration designed evaluation instruments.
9. Remove any change of ratings being used for potential lay- offs
10. Know the characteristics being judged on.
11. Pre-observation discussions.
12. Don't be condescending.

When these comments are compared with the data in questionnaire two it is clear that the teacher does not "see" his supervision as he would like to "see" it. An item analysis of specific questions indicates that the untrained supervisor does not "do" what the trained supervisor does. That is, the untrained supervisor never does the "things" that the trained supervisor always does. That is why the teachers with untrained supervisors ask for improvement in areas that the teachers with trained supervisors have no problem.

There are very few comments on the questionnaires of the teachers with trained supervisors on ways to improve supervision and evaluation.

2. Ways to Improve the Supervision and Evaluation Process.

Responses of Teachers with Trained Supervisors.

1. Mutual respect.
2. Let the supervisor teach awhile.
3. Determine expectations.
4. More visits by the supervisor.
5. Understand needs of the educational process.

An item analysis of the questionnaires indicates that the trained supervisor always does the "things" that the untrained supervisor never does.

It is important in this study not only to indicate that there are significant differences between teachers perceptions of both trained and untrained supervisors but also to indicate the "general areas" of difference.

It is these "general areas" of difference that make distinctions between the teachers perceptions of positive or negative supervision. Factor analysis of selected "general areas" of difference indicate that trained supervisors supervise differently from untrained ones. This results in a mode of supervisory behavior that the teachers perceive as being positive. They feel that their supervisors are qualified and are doing a good job of supervision. Untrained supervisors initiate a mode of behavior that the teachers percieve as negative. The teachers do not like the supervision and feel that it should be improved.

In some areas both groups agree. Over ninety-five percent of both groups agree that the teachers should take part in developing evaluation instruments, that there is a definite need for supervision in the schools and that evaluation should not be the basis for dismissal.

Within the limitations of this study and based on the findings of this study the following conclusions were drawn.

1. There are significant differences between teachers perceptions of trained supervisors and teachers perceptions of untrained supervisors.

2. Trained supervisors initiate a style and behavior that is seen by the teachers as being positive.

3. Untrained supervisors do not initiate a style and behavior that the teachers perceive as being positive.

4. There is a relationship between teachers perceptions of their general supervision and their perception of their personal supervision.

APPENDICES

APENDIX A

Cover Letter to the Teacher

To the Classroom Teacher:

Although there are numerous demands on your time, will you please take a few minutes for a task which you alone are best qualified.

As a graduate student at the University of Pittsburgh, Department of Curriculum and Supervision, I have undertaken a research study to examine how faculties perceive their supervision and evaluation.

Please cooperate in this study by completing the enclosed questionnaires at your earliest convenience and returning them to____________________ sealed in the envelope provided by__________________. Neither your name nor the name of your school is requested. This is to preserve the anonymity of returns and to focus on your perceptions rather than you as an individual, or member of a particular faculty.

This study is being conducted under the directions of Dr. John L. Morgan at the University of Pittsburgh.

Sincerely,

John P. McDonough, teacher
Shaler Area Senior High School

Apendix A (Cont.)

Directions for the Teachers:

The purpose of this study is to assess how faculties perceive their their supervision and evaluation.

Directions:

1- The term supervisor refers to that person who observes your classroom teaching. It can be a principal, vice principal, full time supervisor, part time supervisor or department head.

2- Glance over both questionnaires before beginning to respond. This will give you a general idea of its nature and purpose.

3- Respond to each question as accurately as possible.

KINDLY COMPLETE AND RETURN THESE QUESTIONNAIRES TO ____________________

SEALED IN THE ENVELOPE PROVIDED.

THANK YOU

APENDIX B

QUESTIONNAIRE # 1 (Young and Heichberger)

1- NEED FOR SUPERVISION AND EVALUATION
There is a definite need for supervision and evaluation of teachers in the public school.

yes___ no___ neutral___

2- PERCEPTION OF SUPERVISION
The supervisor is quite often seen as potentially dangerous to a teacher.

yes___ no___ neutral___

3- PARTICIPATION OF TEACHERS
Teachers should take part in developing or selecting evaluation instruments, so that they know the criteria against which they are being judged.

yes___ no___ neutral___

4- EVALUATION USED FOR DIAGNOSTIC PURPOSES
Evaluation should be used to diagnose teacher's performance so they can stregthen their weaknesses through in-service education.

yes___ no___ neutral___

5- PARTICIPATION OF MANY IN EVALUATION
Evaluation should be something in which teachers have a part along with students, parents, and aministrators.

yes___ no___ neutral___

6- FOCUS ATTENTION ON THE LEARNER
One way out of the evaluation dilemma is to put the focus on the learner, not the teacher, and to involve everyone in the business of assessing or supervising everything we do all the time.

yes___ no___ neutral___

7- SUPERVISOR'S PERCEPTION OF TEACHERS PHILOSOPHY
It is important for the supervisor to have some understanding of the teacher's educational philosophy and how the teacher views his own profession.

yes___ no___ neutral___

8- EVALUATION SHOULD FOCUS ATTENTION ON IMPROVEMENT
Instead of focusing major attention on providing the basis for dismissal or continued employment, evaluation programs should focus attention on improving the performance of the employee presently serving on the job.

yes___ no___ neutral___

QUESTIONNAIRE #1

9- THIRTY-FIVE PERCENT OF TIME SPENT IN SUPERVISION
The building principal should spend at least 35% of his time in supervising.

yes___ no___ neutral___

10- TWENTY-FIVE PERCENT OF TIME SPENT IN SUPERVISION
My building principal spends at least 25% of his time in supervising.

yes___ no___ neutral___

11- KIND OF SUPERVISOR/TEACHER RELATIONSHIP
The kind of relationship you would like to have exist between you and a supervisor is that of a: (a) helping relationship, (b) colleagueship, (c) evaluator or rater, (d) counselor-client, (e) teacher-student.

a___ b___ c___ d___ e___

12- DESIRED SUPERVISION PROGRAM
The kind of supervision program you would like to see implemented in your school would be a: (a) team approach to supervision, with teachers designing and evaluation instrument and evaluating each other's progress, (b) video tape evaluation and supervision approach, (c) rating scale or category listing system, (d) supervisor and each teacher agreeing on instructional program objectives, and working together in evaluating these objectives

a___ b___ c___ d___

13- PRESENT ROLE OF PRINCIPAL/SUPERVISOR
The main role you presently see your principal/supervisor playing is that of a: (a) instructional leader, (b) public relations leader, (c) administrative leader, (d) passive leader, (e) other kind of leader.

14- EFFECTIVE WAY TO IMPROVE INSTRUCTION
In your opinion, what would be the one best way in which the supervisor could most effectively help to improve instruction in your school? (a) occasional classroom visits, (b) frequent classroom visits, (c) arranging for exchange of ideas between schools, (d) studying the school needs, and work with faculty groups in solving instructional problems recognized by the groups.

a___ b___ c___ d___

15- A SUGGESTED SUPERVISORY/EVALUATION PROGRAM
The teacher and supervisor establish a list of areas wherein the teacher will concentrate for one year. For example, one area could be: "design better tests". Following the agreed-upon listing, the supervisor observes the teacher's performance, renders assistance where possible, and lastly, meets with the teacher to assess progress or lack of it at the conclusion of the evaluation period.

very positive___ positive___ negative___ very negative___

QUESTIONNAIRE # 1

16- IMPORTANT HUMANISTIC QUALITIES OF A SUPERVISOR
If you were called upon to help design guidelines which would assist your school in hiring a supervisor or administrator/supervisor what is one humanistic quality pertaining to a supervisor, you would list?

17- IMPORTANT TEACHER ATTRIBUTES
If your school required an evaluation instrument of teacher analysis sheet, what is one important teaching or teacher characteristic you would suggest being listed on this evaluation sheet?

18- WAYS TO IMPROVE THE SUPERVISION AND EVALUATION PROCESS
Since teachers and supervisors cannot divorce one another, what is one way in which their mutual goals can become more compatible? i.e., decreasing the fear of being supervised, determining expectations, etc.?

Apendix B (Cont.) (Personally Designed Questionnaire)

QUESTIONNAIRE # 2

1- I see the individual who supervises me as a friend and colleague rather than as a threatining administrator.

always___ sometimes___ seldom___ never___

2- My supervisor helps me to plan the lesson before he/she observes me.

always___ sometimes___ seldom___ never___

3- My supervisor gives me a pre-observation conference prior to coming into my class.

always___ sometimes___ seldom___ never___

4- My supervisor gives me a lengthy post- observation conference so that we may both review the class I taught.

always___ sometimes____ seldom___ never___

5- My supervisor is qualified to observe and rate my teaching performance.

always___ sometimes___ seldom___ never___

6- During my conferences with my supervisor I feel relaxed and at ease.
always___ sometimes___ seldom___ never___

7- During my conferences with my supervisor I feel tense and nervous

always___ sometimes___ seldom___ never___

8- Before my class is observed, the supervisor knows something about the nature of the class. That is, slow learners, several discipline problems, last period of day, or a very quiet class.

always___ sometimes___ seldom___ never___

9- My supervisor has an idea of what my personal teaching style is like before he observes me.

always___ sometimes___ seldom___ never___

10- If something is wrong with the way I teach my supervisor tells me about it after the observation.

always___ sometimes___ seldom___ never____

QUESTIONNAIRE #2

11- During conferences with my supervisor I do most of the talking.

always___ sometimes___ seldom___ never___

12- During conferences with my supervisor he/she does most of the talking

always___ sometimes___ seldom___ never___

13- The comments that my supervisor makes about my teaching are his own personal opinions. They are too subjective.

always___ sometimes___ seldom___ never___

14- During conferences with my supervisor after he/she observed me, I am presented with very objective data collected during the observation such as a Flandors Scale, a teaching pattern, non verbal behavior, or a systematic procedure that indicates more than subjective watching.

always___ sometimes___ seldom___ never___

15- My supervisor is a good supervisor.

always___ sometimes___ seldom___ never___

16- During conferences with my supervisor we both talk about the same amount of time.

always___ sometimes___ seldom___ never___

17- My supervisor asks me a lot of questions during conferences.

always___ sometimes___ seldom___ never___

18- My supervisor respects me as a human being.

always___ sometimes___ seldom___ never___

19- I join in the planning of classroom observations.

always___ sometimes___ seldom___ never___

20- I have a good understanding of the type of supervision my supervisor practices.

always___ sometimes___ seldom___ never___

QUESTIONNAIRE # 2

21- After I am observed my supervisor and I analyze the events of the class.

always___ sometimes___ seldom___ never___

22- After I am observed my supervisor and I share the decision making about how my teaching can be improved.

always___ sometimes___ seldom___ never___

23- My supervisor observes my classroom behavior, my teaching - and not me personally.

always___ sometimes___ seldom___ never___

24- I percieve my supervisor as one who is paid to detect incompetence in teaching.

always___ sometimes___ seldom___ never___

25- The interpersonal relationship between myself and my supervisor is good.

always___ sometimes___ seldom___ never___

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KOHLBERG

AND

MORAL DEVELOPMENT:

WHAT TRENDS?

Rick Milsom

"I know only that what is moral is what you feel good after and what is immoral is what you feel bad after."

— Ernest Hemmingway

"Virtue is of two kinds, intellectual and moral. While intellectual virtue owes its birth and growth to teaching, moral virtue comes about as a result of habit. The moral virtues we get by first exercising them; we become just by doing just acts, temperate by doing temperate acts, brave by doing brave acts.

— Aristotle

In today's educational climate the question frequently arises as to the desirability of fostering morals and values in the public schools. In my discussion I have declined to form an operational definition of the term "morality", this in itself would command an exhaustive study. I feel everyone would agree that "morality" imposes itself into every facet of ones' life. Every decision we make reflects, somewhat, what our moral convictions are. In today's world concerned with Watergate and other Scandals, a realization that times have changed and with it a re-ordering of our values has taken place. A person's word as binding is no longer accepted as it once was.

With this in mind, Lawrence Kohlberg and his colleagues' work take on an added dimension of importance to those concerned in education. In this light it should be seen how valuable his research is and what a viable tool it is for educators.

I first became interested in Kohlberg's research after hearing his contention that only he and God had reached the post-conventional level. However, in my research, I was to find that one of his graduate students, along with Martin Luther King Jr. and Abraham Lincoln had also made the top.

It does seem to be a rarefied atmosphere.

In this paper I will dispense with a discussion of the six moral stages, as such, or and deal more exclusively with their implications. I have dealt mainly with civic education or moral education, the terms will be used synonymously, as they apply to the adolescent and his environment. This is not the most tranquil of periods in one's life, but one where he or she is most likely to question and demand justification for moral rules and standards.

In the past, two general methods were employed in dealing with moral development in the schools. One stressed direct educational procedures such as telling students that honesty was the best policy. This rested on the supposition that if you were told something by an adult, it must be right and you should adhere to it. It was felt that teaching students virtues could promote sound character development, somewhat like following a prescribed patriotic ritual could allegedly insure good citizenship. The second method stressed three indirect educational techniques. Teachers provided adult models and demonstrated the expected norms of society and qualities such as neatness and cleanliness. All this was supposed to rub off on the student who would try to emulate this model whom they could look up to. This presupposes that the teacher was one worthy of this important task. Another technique was the classroom environment established by the teacher which socialized students to accept certain values (obedience,orderliness). This aspect will be discussed at greater length in another section of this paper. The third technique relied on curriculum materials which contributed to incidental teaching of values such as learning about honesty and other virtues by reading biographies of famous Americans who exemplified behavior which was desirable.[1] George

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[1] Ronald E. Galbraith and Thomas W. Jones, "Teaching Strategies of Moral Dilemmas: An Application of Kohlberg's Theory of Moral Development to Social Studies Classrooms," Social Education, 39:16, January, 1975.

Washington and the oft quoted "Cherry Tree" story is probably the best known example of this.

The history of moral education in the United States is, by and large, a history of failure. There are three contenders with their own explanations for this failure. The affectivists claim the failure resulted from treating moral precepts taught in school as if they were something to be memorized like historical facts or the rules of grammar. Children learned the rules but had no interest in applying them.

Developmentalists say the failure resulted from using a single treatment of a moral issue with a developmentally heterogeneous group (age-mates) scattered across many stages of moral development, resulting in negligible net impact. One might as well try to teach long division to a group of second graders, to only a few would it make sense.

According to the cognitivists, the failure was due to an enormous underestimation of the difficulty of moral problems and analysis. Having no real understanding of what morality is all about, they had no reason to take it seriously when it conflicted with their own interests.[2]

Another point of view is expressed by the religionists. They often blame moral laxity on the lack of adequate religious education. A different reason accompanies each religion but their efforts were studied and were shown to have failed. Also, studies have shown that variation in religious affiliation and attendance seem to be unrelated to moral development.[3]

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[2] Michael Scriven, "Cognitive Moral Education," Phi Delta Kappan, 56:689-91, June, 1975.

A "common sense" theory behind traditional moral education which claims that everyone knows what's right and wrong is another failure in promoting morality. Following this supposition, facts are then taught on the basis of the teacher's superior knowledge and authority comparable to the teaching of math combinations. Students are ignorant of moral facts and are tempted to lie and cheat. The failure here results from just being taught these facts and not being given the opportunity to practice moral behavior and habits.[4]

It appears that everyone approves of moral education, but we seem to have great difficulty working it into our educational system. Popular views assume that it is the product first of the home, and second religion. The home passes the responsibility to the school and the school seems to pass it back. Schools are not especially moral institutions. Institutional relationships tend to be based more on authority than on ideas of justice. Adults are often less interested in discovering how children are thinking than in telling them what to think.

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[3] Lawrence Kohlberg, "A Cognitive Developmental Approach to Moral Education," Humanist, 32:13-15, November-December, 1972.

[4] ibid., p. 15.

The school atmosphere is generally a blend of Stage 1, punishment morality, and Stage 4, "law and order" which fails to impress or stimulate students involved in Stage 2 or 3 moral philosophies.[5] Under these circumstances students and teachers stop communicating with one another and development is stunted. With this in mind is it any wonder why moral growth is suspect in the schools? Students become confused and don't know how to act or react.

Moral breakdown is said to be evident in the high propensity toward violence, drugs, and sexual promiscuity. Young people seem to be unaware of their moral responsibilities. Television, in part, appears somewhat to blame. According to the Nielsen index, upon entering kindergarten, an American child already has spent more hours watching T.V. than he would to earn a college degree. By his eighteenth birthday, he has devoted more time to television than anything else, except sleep. The high school graduate will have attended school for 11,000 hours, but will have sat for almost twice that many hours in front of the set, exposed to fare that included 18,000 murders.

Because children imitate what they see, this pervasive exposure has made television much more than a recreational diversion. It has become a powerful teacher whose influence on students' attitudes and behavior rivals the roles of parents, schools, and churches. Media Action Research Center found that during the 1975-1976 season, an aggressive act occured for every two minutes of Saturday morning programming.

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[5] ibid., p. 16.

Children who witness a heavy dose of televised muggings and murders, also may become apathetic toward real-life aggression. A study at Florida Technological University has shown that compared to a control group, fifth graders who viewed an aggressive T.V. broadcast were slower to summon adult help after a scuffle broke out among younger children.[6] Is it any wonder a moral breakdown is mentioned when educators have such a powerful socializing influence to contend with?

The indoctrination issue emerges when questions are raised as to which moral principles we should be expected to teach. Although the term "indoctrination" has not always been used to express disapproval of the teaching in question, this is its dominant meaning today.[7] If American ideals and values are inculcated so that they are believed in a narrow minded fashion by students who refuse even to consider the possible merits of other ways of life, this is indoctrination and not education. Some of this is inevitable in the lower grades. A mother-like dominating teacher may impose values on a child which are inconsistant with what may be learned in the home. The child is faced with a dilemma he is incapable of figuring out. What should he do, adopt one set of rules for school and another for home?

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6. Joann S. Lublin, The Wall Street Journal, October 19, 1976, p.1.

7. Robert Hall and John W. Davis, Moral Education in Thought and Practice, (Buffalo, Prometheus Books,1975) p. 78.

The teacher's values and those of the community or home may come into conflict with bewildering effects on the students. I am reminded of a case a few years back where an unmarried, pregnant librarian lost her job in a school district because of the effect it may have upon the student population. I wonder if a man in the same situation would have lost his job if it was revealed that he was unmarried, but a woman was expecting his child? Conventional moral education has had little impact on children's moral judgments because it has disregarded the problem of developmental match and has generally involved only an attempt at transmitting a set of adult moral clichés.[8] These are often meaningless to the student because they are too abstract.

The hidden curriculum has been refered to as latent indoctrination. Much of what students learn comes not from books and materials but from the moral environment and atmosphere that is established in the classroom.[9] As a teacher, one can extol the virtues of various types of behavior and insist that it is the appropriate way to behave, but over the long run, actions speak louder than words. Behavior that is inconsistent with what is being paid lip-service will not only confuse, but expose the teacher as a fraud. This may result in not only a loss of respect, but the teacher may lose his credibility over time.

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8. Lawrence Kohlberg and Eliot Turiel, "Moral Development and Moral Education," in G. Lesser, ed., Psychology and Educational Practice, (Chicago: Scott Foresman, 1971).

9. Alfred McBride, "Moral Education and the Kohlberg Thesis," Momentum, 4:24, December, 1973.

The character education guides of the 1920's were founded on a conception of moral character as composing a " bag of virtues", a set of approved traits such as honesty, responsibility, friendliness, service, and other values. These were to be taught by sermonizing, giving opportunities for practice, and by rewarding their expression. By adding enough traits we eventually would get a list which contains something to please everyone. The Boy Scout list is a well known example. This approach has one glaring problem; it all depends on whose list you are using. What is one man's integrity is another man's stubbornness; what is one man's honesty in expressing his true feelings is another man's insensitivity to the feelings of others. Is there, or can there be, a consensus on the composition of such a list?[10]

Another critisism of the "bag of virtues" approach is the definition of terms like honesty, that are to be found on the list. The most definitive experimental study of children's moral character carried out was that of Hartshorne and May (1928). Focusing one part of their study on honesty, which they defined as resistence to cheating and stealing in experimental situations, they found that:

1. The world cannot be divided into honest and dishonest people. Almost everyone cheats some of the time.

2. If a person cheats in one situation, it does not mean he will or will not cheat in another.

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[10] op.cit., p. 421.

3. People's verbal moral values about honesty have nothing to do with how they act.

4. There is little correlation between teachers' ratings of honesty and actual experimental measures of honesty.

5. The decision to cheat or not is largely determined by expediency.

6. Even when honest behavior is not dictated by concern about punishment or detection, it is largely determined by immediate situational factors of group approval and example.

7. Where honesty is determined by cultural value-forces, these values are relative or specific to the child's social class and group.[11]

The findings obtained were not restricted to honesty. Exactly the same results were obtained in experimental studies of altruism and self-control. If we define our moral aims in terms of virtues and vices, we are defining them in terms of the praise and blame of others rather than being guided by stable principles. These moral character terms from anyone's "bag of virtues" tend to be noncontroversial only because they are vague. Being vague they tend to be acceptable to parents, each could attach their own meaning to what was being taught under the guise of moral education.

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[11] *ibid.* p. 422-423.

More recently an attempt has surfaced that claims proof cannot always be offered that one value is better than another. Values Clarification contends that the teacher's job is to teach students "to value" instead of values.

Louis Raths, one of the innovators of Values Clarification,, defines a value as a personal guide that gives direction to life, helps us relate to the world and take purposeful action.[12] The term, Values Clarification,, was first used by Raths in the late 1950's. He refined some of John Dewey's ideas, working from Dewey's _Theory of Valuation_. Values Clarification involves knowing what one prizes and choosing those things which one cares for most and weaving those things into the fabric of daily living. Even denying that your values show in your every act is a value indicator. Everything you do reflects values.[13]

According to Sidney Simons, a colleague of Raths, Values Clarification has certain specific aims:

1. It helps people to be more purposeful. Clarifying values helps individuals in not wasting time. Your priorities are listed and you are more aware of what you would like to accomplish.

2. It helps people become more productive. A sense of accomplishment which is very gratifying is a result.

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[12] Joel Goodman, "Sid Simons on Values: No moralizers or Manipulators Allowed," _Nation's Schools_, 92:40-41, December, 1973.

[13] Sid Simons, "Values Clarification : It Can Start Gently and Grow Deep," _Phi Delta Kappan_, 56:680-681, June, 1975.

3. It helps people sharpen their critical thinking. They can become more aware of what's going on around them, and see through the foolishness of others.

4. It helps people have better relations with other people. It is an aid to getting along with others.[14]

These objectives can be accomplished in a variety of methods in the schools. Time can be set aside in a specific course, possibly one day a week, to examine values or it could be used in backing up subject matter. Career education and drug education programs in which students take a look at their own lives can also fulfill the objectives. An elective course dealing exclusively in Values Clarification is also a possibility.

Raths believes that seven criteria must be met before a value becomes fully developed:

1. It must be prized and cherished
2. Should be publicly affirmed
3. Chosen from alternatives
4. Chosen after considering alternatives
5. Chosen freely
6. Acted upon
7. Linked to other values[15]

An example of a strategy to accomplish the above is called, "20 Things You Love to Do," has students write down twenty activities they fully enjoy. Then they are asked to examine their choices more closely and to code the ones that require money or planning, the ones that involve an element of risk, and the ones they want to do alone or with someone they love very deeply. Besides helping students identify what they care about, the "20 Loves", and other similar strategies can also demonstrate that a person who just settles for whatever comes his way, rather than pursuing his own goals, won't have a very satifying life.[16]

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[14] ibid., p. 631.

[15] Goodman, op. cit., p. 40.

Another strategy I have used in one of my classes is the one called, "Coat of Arms".[17] The purpose is to learn more about some of our most strongly held values and, I feel, more importantly, to learn the importance of publicly affirming what we believe. In this situation I passed out a ditto with a shield divided into six sections and the directions stated at the bottom.

Section 1 was to contain two drawings, one to represent something you are very good at, the other something you want to be good at. Section 2 was to picture a value from which you would never budge. Section 3 called for a value by which your family lives. In section 4, you had to imagine that you could achieve anything you wanted and whatever you tried to do would be a success. Section 5 was to represent a value you wished all men would believe. In the last block, the only one where words could be used, you were to write three words you would like people to say about you behind your back.

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[16] ibid., p. 40.

[17] Simons, op. cit., p. 904.

Being that this wasn't my idea but the suggestion of another Psychology teacher, I was skeptical at first. I gave no directions, other than those already on the ditto, except to say that we would be trying something a little different on this day.

The following day, I posted all the sheets on the bulletin board at the back of the room. I allowed a few minutes at the beginning of the class period for an examination of the shields by the students. In this way, if all were truthful in their attempts, we could find out a little more about each other. That day, class was devoted to a discussion of the drawings and individuals could voice their reasoning for what they drew. I hoped in this way, all would be honest in their attempts and not be afraid or ashamed of what they believed in. Even some of the more radical elements publicly affirmed what they believed in and substantiated their reasons. I felt a sense of satisfaction after completing this exercise and for the remainder of the semester realized a more complete rapport within the class.

Values Clarification certainly is a viable process for students to examine values or value systems. If an agreement can be reached that values aren't spontaneous and are developed only after hard work and critical thinking, a device for looking at all facets of an issue must be developed within the framework of the student's minds.

During the past twenty years Lawrence Kohlberg and his colleagues have been devising a new field of psychological, philosophical, and educational research which has gone beyond Values Clarification. Dr. Edwin Fenton has noted that three words--cognitive moral development--has captured the essence of their work. Cognitive stresses organized thought processes. Moral involves decision making in situations where universal values, such as the sanctity of life and the need for authority, come into conflict. And development suggests that patterns of thinking about moral issues improve qualitatively over time.[18]

Kohlberg offers that he has called it cognitive because it recognizes that moral education, like intellectual education, has its basis in stimulating the active thinking of the child about moral issues and decisions. It is called developmental because it sees the aims of moral education as movement through moral stages.[19] He contends that this type of education should not be aimed at teaching some specific set of morals (i.e. bag of virtues) but should be concerned with developing the organizational structures by which one analyzes, interprets, and makes decisions about social problems.

Kohlberg has characterized his efforts as "warmed-over Dewey" and refers to John Dewey as "the only modern thinker about education worth taking seriously."[20] His work in moral stage development may be best understood as outgrowths of this statement of Dewey:

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[18] Edwin Fenton,"Moral Education:The Research Findings" Social Education, 40:189,April,1976.

[19] Lawrence Kohlberg,"Cognitive Developmental Approach to Moral Education," Phi Delta Kappan, 56:671, June,1975.

> "Only ethical and psychological principles can elevate the school to a vital institution in the greatest of all constructions-the building of a free and powerful character. Only knowledge of the order and connection of the stages in psychological development can insure the maturing of the psychical powers. Education is the work of supplying the conditions which will enable the psychological functions to mature in the freest and fullest manner. [21]

Dewey, who in works like *Ethical Principles Underlying Education*(1909), first presented a progressive or developmental conception of moral education. Proposing that intellectual education is the stimulation of the child's development of an active organization of his own experience, Dewey also stressed the central role of thinking or active organization in morality. Further, he stressed that development is the critical aim of moral education and that this development takes place in stages.[22]

Dewey postulated three levels of moral development which correspond to those of Kohlberg. The first is the pre-moral or preconventional level of behavior motivated by biological and social impulses. The second level of behavior is the conventional, where the individual accepts with little critical reflection, the standards of his group. The antonomous

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20. James Rest,"Developmental Psychology as a Guide to Value Education:A Review of "Kohlbergian" Programs," *Review of Educational Research*, 44:245-46, September, 1974.

21. Lawrence Kohlberg,"Moral Development and the New Social Studies," *Social Education*, 37:372, May, 1973.

22. Kohlberg and Turiel, *op. cit.*,p. 413.

level, the third and last, is characterized by conduct guided by individual thinking and judging for himself whether a purpose is good, and does not accept the standard of his group without reflection.[23]

Kohlberg is indebted to two others who have aided him in his research. From Plato, he draws an understanding of "justice" which he claims to be the supreme good for principled moral judgment, and from Piaget, Kohlberg collects a wealth of insight, especially pioneer work in the structural and developmental approach to cognitive and moral growth. Differences between Kohlberg and Piaget's systems occur at level 3 where Kohlberg is highly abstract and Piaget seems to have discontinued.[24]

Fenton claims that Kohlberg's research suggests that comprehensive civic education programs must have six interrelated elements. First, they must extend over many years of schooling. No single course or attempt will do the job. Second, a program must be extended into all disciplines in the school. All teachers must contribute to the development of their students. Thirdly, civic education programs must strive to change the hidden curriculum. IN MANY SCHOOLS THE HIDDEN CURRICULUM denies what formal courses in civic education affirm~~s~~. Student governments lack the power that elected bodies possess in a democracy in many schools. School rules are made autocratically instead of through the democratic process. Fourth, teachers must be exposed to an extensive preparation program to facilitate thinking in terms of new sets of educational objectives. This re-education is comparable to the situation involved when the new math was introduced into the schools. Next, a comprehensive program of civic education requires new curricular materials organized for developmental goals in both Social Studies and English. These materials should provide sequential and cumulative learning experiences throughout the student's high school career. Finally, the program must be evaluated carefully. A true evaluation should follow at least one sample of students far beyond the end of their high school experience.[25]

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[23] Lawrence Kohlberg, "The Cognitive Developmental Approach to Moral Education," Phi Delta Kappan, 56:673, June, 1975.

[24] Doug Sholl, "Contributions of L. Kohlberg to Religious and Moral Education," Religious Education, 66:370, Spring, 1971.

Of course, these elements may seem a bit extensive and possibly even idealistic, but in order to facilitate moral development no one claims the job will be simple or will be accomplished overnight. It will take a concerted effort by everyone involved.

The status of moral education today revolves around the premise that it is something else for the teacher to do. If an effective program is to be brought about in the schools all concerned-students, teachers, curriculum workers, and the community must have a share in the development of such a system. Only under such conditions may the teacher then be

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25. Edwin Fenton, The Implications of Lawrence Kohlberg's Research for Civic Education (Pittsburgh, Pa.:Carnegie-Mellon University, Institute for Developmental Educational Activities), (Mimeographed), p.32-33.

obliged to accept a proper assignment of accountability for what he or she has done to influence the shape of the future.

The function of the school must be set forth. Expected role behaviors, rights, and responsibilities of teachers should be clearly stated and effective teaching strategies should be developed. It is clear that society cannot wait until the student is able to reason abstractly before he is introduced to its norms and values. Instruction should begin at a stage appropriate to the child's level of development.[26]

An understanding of the sophistication of the student should be realized. Kohlberg has criticized many moral education programs for either underestimating students or in overshooting their comprehension with abstract doctrines. For example, it has been suggested that a goal of Level 4 should be attained by the time students leave high school in order that they may better understand the Constitution and Declaration of Independence, which is written on Level 5. If students are below the fourth stage how are they to comprehend a study of government dealing with these concepts. Such programs presuppose Piaget's stage of Formal Operations on Kohlberg's Stage 5 and 6, which high school students have not yet attained.

Kohlberg has characterized the child as a moral philosopher. We attempt to deal with adults as reasonable creatures in moral matters, we need also to see that the child can be a reasonable being that thinks for himself and considers fairness and the welfare of himself and others. Moral development is a result of an increasing ability to perceive social reality. The main experiential determinants of this development seem to be the amount and variety of social experience, the opportunity to take a number of roles and to encounter other perspectives.[27]

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[26] Walter H. Gautt, "Teacher Accountability for Moral Education," Social Education, 39:31, January, 1975.

The opportunity for moral role-taking appears to be what is most important in the contribution of the family to moral development. A study by Holstein, "Parental Determinants of Moral Development," indicates that children who were advanced in moral judgment had parents who were also advanced in moral judgment.[28] Kohlberg's studies indicate that, although the home is important, its positive effects upon development are primarily due to the provision of role-taking opportunities provided by the peer group, the school, and the wider society.[29]

The primary goal of education in moral development is to stimulate a student, step by step, through the stages. Three corollaries to this general goal have been proposed:[30]

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27. Lawrence Kohlberg, "A Cognitive Developmental Approach to Moral Education," Humanist, 32:16, November-December, 1972.

28. C. Holstein, Recent Research in Moral Development, (New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1973).

29. Kohlberg, op. cit., p. 15.

30. Rest, op. cit., p. 256.

1. The educator should be interested in facilitating development as far as possible, even in people who may never reach the highest stages.

2. Even if at a certain time the educator cannot move a particular person to a new stage, he should try to prevent fixation at the lower stage and try to keep things "fluid" enough so that progress may come about at a later time.

3. Educators should strive to facilitate "horizontal" development as well as "vertical", not only push for new structures, but to extend the full use of an acquired structure to new domains of activity and problem areas.

The aim is to ensure the optimal level of development of the student, to ensure that ultimately everyone will reach a mature level of thought and action. Research has suggested that those who have failed to develop for a number of years are more likely to become "locked in" or fixated at the level at which they have stopped. Thus, a sixteen year old at Stage 2 is relatively immovable, in comparison to a ten year old at Stage 2. As they remain at a given stage of development, they develop stronger screens or defenses against perception of those features in their social world which do not fit their level.[31]

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[31] Kohlberg and Turiel, op. cit., p. 448.

Several generalizations have grown out of the research into cognitive moral development of Kohlberg and his group:

A. People think about moral issues in six qualitatively different stages arranged in three levels of two stages each. The concept of stages implies the following characteristics, according to Kohlberg:

1. Stages are "structured wholes" or organized systems of thought. Individuals are consistent in level of moral judgment. More than 50% of an individual's thinking is always at one stage, with the remainder at the next adjacent stage (which he is leaving or moving into).

2. Stages form an invariant sequence. Under all conditions, except trauma, movement is always forward, never backward. Stages are never skipped.

3. Stages are "hierarchial integrations". Thinking at a higher stage includes or comprehends within it lower stage thinking. There is a tendency to function at or prefer the highest stage available. Adolescents exposed to written statements at each of the six stages put in their own words all statements at or below their own stage but fail to comprehend any statements more than one stage above their own.[32]

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[32] Lawrence Kohlberg, "The Cognitive-Developmental Approach to Moral Education", Phi Delta Kappan, 56:675, June, 1975.

B. The most reliable way to determine a stage of moral thought is through a moral interview. A stage is neither a type of person nor a type of behavior; it is a way of thinking. Two people who think at the same level can be radically different.

C. These stages are natural steps in ethical development, not something artificial or invented. To find them, Kohlberg gave moral interviews to people of different ages - 10, 13, 16, 20, and then classified answers into groups each of which exhibited a similar reasoning process. Longitudinal studies continued his work, interviewing the same subjects every three years. Parallel, cross-sectional research has been conducted in the United States, Turkey, Mexico, Taiwan, Israel, Yucatan, Canada, and India. In each country researchers have found the same stages of moral thought that Kohlberg discovered in the United States.

D. Stage transition takes place primarily because encountering real life or hypothetical moral dilemmas sets up cognitive conflict in a person's mind and makes them uncomfortable.

E. Deliberate attempts to facilitate stage change in schools through educational programs have been successful. Compared to students in control groups, students in experimental groups who participate in moral discussions, show significant increases in the stage of moral thought they commonly use.

F. Moral judgment is a necessary, but not sufficient, condition for moral action. Three factors in addition to moral thought influence moral action: situational stress, diffused responsibility, and the complexity of moral issues involved.[33] The My Lai Massacre offers an example of these factors. Soldiers there, faced with lack of action, if anything, and under emotional and situation stress because of the loss of many friends, appear to have misinterpreted orders. Under the mistaken belief that the village was a Viet Cong stronghold, they diffused responsibility to the officers and took the lives of 400-500 civilians. In another situation, would these men have taken so many lives no matter what their moral stage? Why did life hold so little meaning at the time? Mrs. Anthony Meadlo, mother of a soldier involved, remembered when he came home, "I gave them a good boy and they made him a murderer."[34]

These generalizations, of course, are subject to examination and criticism by some who wish to disagree with Kohlberg's findings. These will be discussed in a subsequent section of this paper.

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33. Edwin Fenton, "Moral Education:The Research Findings", *Social Education*, 40:193, April, 1976.

34. Seymour M. Hersh, *"My Lai 4, A Report on the Massacre and Its Aftermath"*, (New York, Random House, 1970) p. 161.

To be effective in facilitating stage change, the teacher must help the student experience and understand the inadequacies of his own way of thinking. In attempting to do this, the teacher must focus on the *reasoning* used in the individuals moral judgments, rather than on the content of their moral choices. This, I feel, is the most important aspect and possibly the most difficult to convey to the student. The traditional effort to produce change has involved telling them about the wrongness of his or her actions or attitudes. This would seem to do nothing more than alienate the student to your efforts. If there is one thing an individual will be turned off by, it is insisting that their attitudes or beliefs are wrong. This may lead to a sense of inadequacy and a blow to their self-esteem. Kohlberg's research does not speak directly to the problems of developing self-esteem among students, but the nature of higher moral stages implies the importance of this goal; since, respect AND EQUALITY OF persons are two of the major attributes of principled thought.

In order to stimulate change, the teacher must keep several points in mind. Knowledge of the students level of thought must be known, and an attempt to match this level by communicating at the level directly above must be made. A focus on reasoning, in order to help the individual experience the type of conflict that leads to an awareness of the greater adequacy of the next stage, should be attempted.[35]

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[35] Kohlberg and Turiel, *op. cit.*, p. 455.

Kohlberg claims the most reliable way to determine a stage of moral thought is through a moral discussion. A good moral discussion depends on a few variables. One is a recognized moral dilemma which presents a real conflict for the central character and generates differences of opinion among students. It should be as simple as possible containing only a few characters in an uncomplicated situation and be open-ended.[36] Another is a leader who can focus discussion on moral reasoning, and finally a classroom climate that encourages students to express themselves freely.[37]

Fenton contends that in a moral discussion, students and the teacher should sit in a circle in order to encourage the exchange of opinions and to facilitate sensitive attendance. I take exception to this idea mainly because the students immediately sense that something is different. It would be fine if that were the usual seating arrangement but a move into a circle, reminiscent of elementary reading groups, may place some of the more shy members on their guard and inhibit their responses. In my classes the first seat, middle row was always reserved for myself. In this way, I hoped to convey the feeling that I was a member of the class and not an outsider who was separate and apart from the group. From my investigations, I have found that many students testify

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36. Barry K. Beyer, "Conducting Moral Discussions in the Classroom", Social Education, 40:196, April, 1976.

37. Galbraith and Jones, op. cit., p. 21-22.

that they have taken a more active role in a moral discussion than they have in any other classroom activity, and that they enjoyed it.

In the past few years I have engaged my classes in moral and values discussions without being aware of Kohlberg and his work. The following is an exercise received at a Social Studies workshop. It requires the students to read the story and decide for themselves who was the most wrong and who was the most right between the five characters.

Tim, a high school student, moves with his parents to a new community in October of his senior year. He is rather shy and doesn't make friends easily; most of his fellow students regard him as a "brain" because he is taking accelerated courses in science and math. His parents want him to go to college and have decided that he is not to go out on school nights; he must stay home and study.

Pam is in Tim's American History class. She thinks he's cute and has been trying to coax him into asking her out for a date. Tim, however, has never considered this because Pam is a cheerleader and a member of the popular set at school, and anyhow, Tim has to stay in and study most of the time.

One Tuesday afternoon Pam gives in to impatience and asks Tim over for the evening to listen to records. Tim eagerly accepts. At dinner that night he tells his parents that he is going over to a friend's house to work on a science project and will be home around ten o'clock.

He goes to Pam's house and soon they are in the cellar recreation room talking and listening to records. About eight o'clock Pam reaches into her pocket and pulls out a plastic bag. She asks Tim if he'd like to smoke some grass. Tim takes the bag and looks at it. He is curious about marijuana--he has never gotten high before.

Suddenly Pam's father walks in. He halts and stares at the couple and then grabs the bag from Tim. He looks at Tim and Pam. "Is this marijuana?" he inquires. Pam looks down, and Tim sits there, speechless. "Pam, go to your room while I take this hood to the police", says her father.

Tim is scared. He blurts out the name of one of the kids in his class rumored to sell drugs when asked his name.

Pam's father leads Tim to the car muttering things about slum punks and bad apples that ruin the whole barrel. Once in the car he calms down and asks Tim where he lives. Tim tells him his address, hoping he won't be taken to the police station.

Finally, they arrive at Tim's house, and in the heat of the confrontation, no introductions take place. Pam's father departs shortly, saying, "The only reason I brought him home is that I don't want to put a kid in jail because he's had a bad upbringing."

Tim's mother starts shouting at him. "How long has this been going on? After all we've done for you." His father motiohs him to go to his room saying that we'll talk this over in the morning after everyone calms down.

In the morning Tim finds that his father has gone to work early and his mother has some news for him. "Your father and I had a long talk last night and I finally persuaded him to go along with my decision. From now on you'll do all of your studying at home. Weekends you'll work in your father's store and all of your earnings will be put away for your college education."

This exercise reflects the values of the individual members of the class and from my experience it has always led to the same deep discussion and opening up by all members. In retrospect, I found myself countering responses one level higher than some expressed by a few individuals, and reinforcing members who were at the more advanced stages; although at the time, I was unaware of my use of Kohlberg strategies.

There are many sources of moral dilemmas that students may be given for practice such as drama, literature, current events, history,(My Lai, Wounded Knee) or imaginary incidents.

By becoming an integral part of education, moral discussions can contribute to the realization of existing overall course objectives as well as bring new objectives to the learning situation. Among the general educational goals which can be reached, according to Barry K. Beyer, an associate of Edwin Fenton at Carnegie-Mellon University, are the following:

> 1. Moral discussions can help students to develop listening skills, skills of oral communication, and the ability to participate constructively in group discussions.
>
> 2. Properly led moral discussions can improve a student's self-esteem if the focus is on the substance of student remarks and everyone treats each other's ideas with respect.
>
> 3. Most students find moral discussions fascinating and look forward to them. As a result school can seem a more interesting place to them.
>
> 4. Discussions involve key concepts, such as justice, which students understand in stage-related terms.
>
> 5. Stage change is facilitated through moral discussions. A student entering high school at Stage 2 will, hopefully, advance to where his thinking is pridominately at Stage 4.[38]

These goals are more likely to be achieved when teachers develop a non-judgmental classroom climate that reflects trust, informality, and tolerance.

Kohlberg's work, although interesting and quite relevant, presents several questions in my mind that must be discussed.

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[38] Beyer, op. cit., p. 196.

The aspect of higher stages as better stages is one. They are said to be better than lower stages in a sense that higher structural organizations can do a better job in analyzing problems, tracing implications, and integrating diverse considerations. I wonder if this can be proven within a shadow of doubt. Those at a lower stage cannot understand reasoning at the higher level, therefore it would be difficult for them to see this higher line of reasoning. The question here seems to be one of being more wrong or less right.

Kohlberg feels reasoning at the higher stages promotes less contradiction within a person's thinking, and it applies more consistently and clearly to other similar dilemmas. For example, he feels a person who reasons at Stage 4 (strict obedience to law) does not have a clear position in a situation in which two laws come into conflict.

The question of whether abortion is morally right or wrong illustrates the point. The law does not give a clear answer to this question because in some states it is legal and in others it is illegal. Would this mean a person should think abortion morally right when he drove into a state in which it was legal, and think it morally wrong when he crossed the border into a state where it was prohibited?

The point is that for difficult moral questions like abortion, the law does not give us good reasons for our moral choices.

Another question worth asking is whether a student can become more skilled at responding thoughtfully to his own moral dilemmas through a sample situation involving someone else? Without a close identification is it likely that the student will approach an understanding of the problem? It is easy enough to give advice in a situation to another person, but when you are faced with the same situation, it is sometimes hard to follow your own advice. All this appears to be is generalization. In talking with educators involved in moral education classes, they feel that although nothing may be accomplished, parents and others concerned may feel better knowing an attempt is being made.

The classroom teacher is placed in a difficult situation in dealing with moral education. It is difficult to interact with different levels in a class. How can something consistently be presented one level above every student? The training he or she must go through may also place unrealistic demands on an educators time in order to learn this complicated system. This was another reservation described by teachers during my investigation. Also, many teachers haven't reached Stage 5 or 6 and some students may reason at a higher level. How will they react in this situation? How can a Stage 3 teacher moralize with a Stage 5 student.[39]

The scoring systems used to determine at what level one functions is another aspect that is highly subjective. Are these standardized to the point of eliminating variations by different scorers? Fenton claims that trained scorers show ninety percent agreement in identifying stages, but Kohlberg's research does not support this.[40] I imagine that the halo effect would play a part in this somewhere.

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[39] Jack R. Fraenkel, "The Kohlberg Bandwagon: Some Reservations", Social Education, 40:218, April, 1976.

Fenton's further claim that deliberate attempts to facilitate stage change in schools have been successful is open to some question. Kohlbergs studies have shown that just about 1/3 of the students involved have shown upward change. I don't know what would be considered "success" but at least, as I said before, people feel better knowing an attempt is being made.

Changes may be due partly to the maturation process and the way adults tend to treat the student as he grows older. On the other hand, popular students or boisterous ones who reason at Stage 2, for example, may have a tendency to carry the class along with them, in an attempt by the higher reasoning students to identify with the lower stage group. This has a tendency to cloud results.

Beyer's assertions that moral discussions develop listening skills and improve self-esteem seems to be overemphasizing a point. The discussions can be handled poorly or well. In this case, I feel, the teacher is the most important determinant. The teacher who shows a genuine interest in the student can do far more than a group discussion.

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40. ibid., p. 219.

The feeling that someone cares and that you are an important individual is a great feeling for a student to possess. The extra passing comment or an occassional wave may mean much to a student. The teacher is the one who should get credit for the development of self-esteem.

His further claim that dilemmas should be as simple as possible causes a sense of ambivalence in my mind. Life situations or dilemmas are rarely simple, but the thinking process is what is important here. A clouding of issues would possibly add to the confusion. On the other hand, students need exposure to problems and to be made aware of the many complicated issues they may face in life.

Jack Fraenkel has suggested other reservations such as the universality of the stages and whether nine cultures are a representative enough sample, the assertion that everyone should be brought up to Stage 4, the question concerning whether six stages have actually been identified and if all are different, and others. His claims are well founded and quite interesting.

Punishment, property, affection, authority, law, life, liberty, and justice. These are the universal values which Kohlberg has identified. How many of our students upon leaving their high school experience approach an understanding of these terms? Not a majority, I would venture to say. The process by which moral principles are examined should help the learner reduce his dependence on external direction and increase his ability to make personal, autonomous decisions. In moving from conventional to post-conventional stages, the primary requirement is that one develop a realization that conventional beliefs and behavior of individuals and groups, including governments at any level, are always subject to examination and change on the basis of their contribution to the well-being of everyone concerned or affected by them.

The principles of moral judgment cannot be learned in a moral vacuum. To learn them, a student must receive practice in resolving dilemmas. Where is he to receive such practice? Is the home enough? Lying to a parent and staying on the phone too long are quite dissimiliar situations, but both might receive the same punishment. The sad fact is that these distinctions are not made, and the punishment for a lengthy conversation often is the same as punishment for violating a real moral issue such as cheating or lying. Moral development is hindered if these distinctions are not made.

As a result, the task of fostering moral development falls to the schools. The job is to find responsible, trustworthy educators who will assume the task and be dedicated to this end. As mentioned before, many feel moral development is just something else to occupy the teachers time. Most are concerned solely with their subject matter. In some opinions, it is hard enough to cover their specific course objectives, let alone be concerned with peripheral goals. This is why I feel individual courses on Values Clarification and moral education should become an integral part of all school districts.

Those to whom I have talked at Keystone Oaks school district have been quite enthusiastic about their program. Almost to a point where I felt they were trying to sell it to me. The problem here is that those outside their small circle of four teachers (two social studies and two English) aren't that well informed about the program. On the one hand it is promoted, but on the other, it is rather reclusive within the school.

In full realization that there are no clear cut boundaries on the limits of this topic, I have not limited myself to any one aspect, but chose to view the whole topic of moral education. I have but scratched the surface for I realize the immense complexity associated with moral education. The wealth of material on Kohlberg's work, itself, is enough to fill volumes. I have internalized much of his work and find myself looking differently at situations which arise in day to day life. Possibly, if more teachers would be exposed to Kohlberg, in depth, some of his objectives would transfer to their students. Hopefully, nothing but good would come from this.

Lawrence Kohlberg and Edwin Fenton's work in schools in Boston and Pittsburgh have provided valuable insight into an area of growing concern. Hopefully, these programs will soon begin to find themselves in an increasing number of school districts as a result of their contributions to education.

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HISTORICAL REVIEW
OF
COLLEGIATE
NURSING EDUCATION

by

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History of Education in the U.S.
December 15, 1976

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Introduction

For many nurses, including myself, there is much to be said about nursing education - where it has been, where it is now, and where leaders say it should be.

Specifically, who started the push for collegiate education for the nurse and why? When did it all begin? Upon what philosophy is this movement built? What are the specific advantages of a collegiate program versus a diploma program? Who opposes this change and why?

These are the basic questions I will attempt to answer in the following presentation.

Historically, nursing education began in England with the first school of nursing in the world established by Florence Nightingale in 1860.[1] This school was meant to be an autonomous unit, independently supported.[2] However, because of high pressure service demands of the hospital, nursing education came under the control of a service agency, namely, the hospital.[3]

"The Nightingale System" as it was called, quickly spread to the United States. The first modern schools of nursing were organized on this system. These were independent and supported by committees of women.[4]

These schools contracted with hospitals, but were not subservient to them.[5] This system did not survive for long, however, since the economic problem of supporting them became too great[6] and society as a whole felt comparatively little responsibility for women's education.[7]

This is where the hospital began to take over the responsibility of training nurses, since there didn't seem to be any other alternative at this time. Much of this education was based on an apprenticeship type of system in which training was offered in return for student service.[8]

Dolan (1958) stated that the apprenticeship type system produced "a type of nurse who was not prepared to take her place in the social progress of her day."[9] A critic in 1948 felt that nursing education was merely incidental to hospital boards and administrators: "The nurse of today is not an educational product, not even an educational by-product. She is a hospital by-product."[10]

Economy and lack of society support for the education of women were problems very directly associated with training nurses on an apprenticeship basis, but equally relevant was the public concept of the nurse.

The public image of a nurse was a woman with a devoted heart and a disciplined hand,[11] who was generally seen as the handmaiden of the physician, who often times was the superintendant of the hospital.[12] She generally acquired skills through a short training period, a few lectures, and a great deal of on-the-job experience, gathered in an 80 to 90 hour week.[13]

Up until about 1893, there was virtually no standard for nursing education. Isabel Hampton then developed the first graded course for nurses in the U.S. at the Illinois Training School for Nurses in Chicago (around 1893.)[14] She stated in Chicago while speaking on "Educational Standards for Nurses" that the teaching methods of no two schools will be found to be alike, all varying according to the demands of the various institutions and their several authorities. "Each school is a law unto itself."

As a result of the lack of any standard, she pointed out that "...trained nurse may mean then anything, everything, or next to nothing..."[15]

Contrary to what Hampton says, it seems that by the turn of the century, the hospital school of nursing had given society two important values: one was the spectacular improvements in care of patients, another was the contribution of a substantial number of able and eager student nurses to staff the hospitals. In spite of the obvious inadequacies in their education, the nurses nevertheless revolutionized the care of the sick.[16]

The hospital schools grew rather rapidly across the United States, although in some cases, with opposition from certain physicians, politicians, and other influential citizens. At the end of 1880, there were 15 schools; by 1900, more than 400 additional schools had been established. The number of graduate nurses had grown from 0 to 3, 456 in 30 years.[17]

During the next 30 years (1900 - 1930) rapid expansion of hospital schools continued, reaching the number 1,843 by 1930 with 24,658 graduates.[18]

The chief emphasis during this time was to meet the demands for nursing care, which was largely provided by students.[19] Apparently quantity was much more important than quality at this time.

This is basically how the nursing profession developed as opposed to other professions, as Mary Roberts stated at one time: "No other profession has been developed on the assumption that an education can be secured in exchange for service."[20]

Nursing - a profession? History questions whether or not nursing has ever achieved the true status of a profession. The United States census of 1930 classified nurses as "semi-professionals", although the 1940 census placed them among the professionals. However, the Veteran's Administration classified nurses as "sub-professional" until 1945.[21]

What is the criteria of a profession to which we may compare nursing? In other words, what makes an occupation, such as nursing, a profession?

First of all, a profession according to Cottrell is an occupation depending for its practice upon a well-organized body of scientific knowledge and necessitating that each practitioner be at all times, a potential contributor to the refinement, enlargement, and experimental verification of that knowledge.[22] From nursing's early history, we can hardly say that it approached any semblance of a profession since it's educational system was anything but organized.

Among the characteristics most common to any profession are: 1) a level of commitment; 2) a disciplined educational process; 3) a unique body of knowledge and skill; 4) an active and cohesive professional organization; and 5) discretionary authority and judgement.[23]

Whether or not an occupation meets the criterion of a certain level of commitment depends upon the members engagement in the occupation during most of their lives. Nursing is in a very ambivalent position by this standard since nurses leave their profession at a much higher rate than physicians, engineers, lawyers, or teachers.[24]

The standard of a disciplined educational process implies a long and rigorous process that integrates both theoretical and applied content. This certainly wasn't the case in the early days of nursing.[25] Then again, looking at the present preparation, we see at least three methods of preparing the "professional" nurse varying anywhere from about two years to five years, and programs varying in emphasis and content.

A profession, such as nursing, should have a unique body of knowledge and skill. It was only in 1964 when Simmons stated that nursing "has not yet built up a substantial body of independent knowledge..."[26] It seems that nursing, particularly in its early beginning, maintained an extremely close relationship to medicine, and was frequently defined in terms of procedures or techniques that emphasized skill at the expense of knowledge or understanding.[27]

Another criterion which characterizes a profession is a cohesive self-governing professional organization, which is also a source of professional self-discipline standards and ethics.[28] Nursing has such an organization, but not every nurse supports it. Some feel it is not effective as an organization, others feel the dues are too high. Others feel it is the same small group that runs it. Statistically, in 1967 less than 25% of the registered nurses in the United States were members of the ANA (American Nurses Association); a total membership of 204,704 R.N.'s.[29] While in 1974, there were 196,024 members, which was equal to less than 23% of the total R.N. population in the United States at that time.[30]

A common characteristic of a profession is also that the practitioners possess an exercise authority and judgement. Traditionally, nursing has been "embedded within a hierarchy of authority",[31] and autonomy, particularly in its early beginnings.

Lysaught feels that nursing has been and is a troubled profession, failing to meet the criteria of a full profession. "It has never been in control of its own destiny, and has suffered severe consequences when it has failed to meet the demands imposed by society."[32] In other words, nursing has not been strong enough to stand by itself and adequately meet the needs of an ever-changing society. This is a serious long enduring drawback to the image of nursing as a separate, unique profession.

Earlier in nursing's history, around 1915, Dr. Abraham Flexner set up a criteria that formed a basis for judging whether an occupation had attained professional status.[33] It was at this time, that Dr. Flexner did not feel that nursing met these criteria, although later, in 1928, the American Nurses Association maintained that nursing could meet all of these criteria.[34] These criteria were basically very similar to that previously outlined in this presentation by Lysaught.

Regardless of the questionable status of nursing, there were those who sought to raise nursing to the level of a profession. Leaders spoke for the long overdue need for improvements in nursing education.

During the late 1800's and early 1900's, the head of John Hopkins Training School recommended to the board of trustees, that "careful attention...be given to the more purely intellectual part of the nurse's training to the end that nursing may be elevated to a profession and raised as far as possible above the status of a mere trade."[35]

It was in the year 1900, that some schools of nursing began to explore university and college opportunities to improve their educational programs.[36] Affiliations with educational institutions were arranged in 1903 in several cities, apparently in an attempt to take on some of the characteristics of these institutions.[37] But, nursing did not become an official part of the college program until 1909 when the University of Minnesota School of Nursing was founded, which was actually the "first university school of nursing in the world."[38] This school was born mainly through the efforts of Dr. Richard Olding Beard who authored "The University Education of the Nurse". In this paper, Dr. Beard proclaimed the function of a state university: "It is, and it should be peculiarly interested in providing for the highest and most selective training of those who are to engage in the pursuits by which human life, human development, and human health are conserved. In a word, it should bring the full emphasis of its nurture upon the value of human life itself."[39] Dr. Beard not only fathered the movement for university education for the nurse, but he continually supported it despite strong opposition from some of his fellow physicians.

In 1916, Yale and Cincinnati Universities both offered degree programs in nursing. These were the first universities to offer a degree for nursing.[40] Although the University of Minnesota School of Nursing opened in 1909, it wasn't until 1919 that the school was able to grant a degree in nursing.[41]

The year 1917 saw the incorporation of the national organization for nurses, the American Nurses Association (ANA). The ANA held as one of its purposes: "To promote the professional and educational advancement of nurses in every proper way; o elevate the standard of nursing education..."[42]

Several studies regarding nursing education followed in 1917. The Committee for the Study of Nursing Education under the direction of Josephine Goldmark presented its report "Nursing and Nursing Education in the United States", in 1923. This represented the completion of the first major study. It was a serious criticism of the existing nursing education programs of the time: "...average hospital training school is not organized on such a basis as to conform to the standards accepted in other educational fields; that the instruction in such schools is frequently casual and uncorrelated; that the educational needs and the health and strength of students are frequently sacrificed to practical exigencies..."[44] The committee pointed out that the old apprenticeship type of training was outmoded in the preparation of the professional nurse,[45] and urged that nursing education move toward a collegiate system of education.[46]

About eleven years following the Goldmark Report, the Association of Collegiate Schools of Nursing held its first regular meeting, at which time the association formed its constitution and by-laws.

The organization stated its purposes as: 1) To develop nursing education on a professional and collegiate level; 2) To promote and strengthen relationships between schools of nursing and institutions of higher education; and 3) To promote study and experimentation in nursing service and nursing education."[47]

In the years following, there were more studies on nursing education, and the emphasis continued to be placed on the need for a collegiate education for the "professional" nurse. In 1948, the National Nursing Council directed by Esther Lucille Brown, a sociologist, published its report "Nursing for the Future".[48] The study is also known as the "Brown Report".[49]

One of the major recommendations of the study was to apply the term "professional" only to schools that offer a professional education, such as; universities, colleges, hospitals affiliated with institutions of higher learning, medical colleges, or independent institutions. Brown also identified two types of nurses: the graduate bedside nurse, a product of a diploma school of nursing, and the professional nurse, a product of an institution of higher learning.[50]

In contrast to the Goldmark Report of 1923, which gave little credit if any to the hospital schools of nursing, Brown in her 1948 report cited a number of "Distinguished Hospital

Schools" commenting on their educational quality, but at the same time, recommending that nursing education can be adequate only if it provides for "laying of a foundation that permits continuing growth of many kinds."[52]

She lists a number of examples of the many kinds of growth she means. Generally, all these refer not only to the professional advancement of the nurse, but just as much to the personal enhancement of the person.

In 1951, two events placed greater stress on collegiate education for the professional nurse. Both the Joint Nursing Curriculum Conference and the National Nursing Accrediting Service reached a consensus "that a graduate nurse should first earn a baccalaureate degree that represents sound basic preparation for general professional nursing, that is, broad general education essential to effective citizenship and a rich personal life - and a well-rounded professional preparation - with breadth and depth of nursing knowledge, skill, and understanding."[53]

That same year, the Department of Higher Education of the National Education Association passed a resolution regarding nursing education: "Whereas, health needs of the civilian population and military personnel are making increasing demands for the services of professionally and technically prepared nurses, and...Whereas, education for nursing is now predominantly outside higher education, with emphasis on apprenticeship training; Be it resolved: That institutions of higher learning recognize their responsibility for establishing progress providing for the professional and technical education of nurses."[54]

Two years later, following these happenings, Dr. Margaret Bridgman published Collegiate Education for Nursing, which attempted to provide data upon which could be built a philosophy of the nature and purposes of a collegiate education.[55]

Bridgman maintained that unless nursing education includes liberal arts, graduate nurses are not prepared to meet the demands of their profession, nor their social life, nor will they be intelligent citizens.[56]

Dr. Bridgman also gave specific reasons why the diploma program for nursing was not an adequate program for nurses:

1. They vary widely in quality and a large proportion are below the national standards of the nursing profession for producing staff level competence.
2. Because of their apprenticeship nature, they delay the educational process, requiring three years when comparable or superior results can be produced more quickly with concentrated educational emphasis.
3. They fail to provide adequate foundations for specialization and advancement.[57]

However, in this study Bridgman also reviewed nursing education within the college and found a great number of difficulties. She strongly criticized many colleges and universities for defeating the entire purpose of collegiate preparation for the nurse, by tending to think of nursing education only as 'training'. She found that some colleges had established affiliation "with individual hospital schools without investigation or concern about educational standards."[58]

Regardless of this, Bridgman repeatedly emphasized in the study, that basic baccalaureate programs provide the most efficient and satisfactory means of supply for staff-level functions requiring broad preparation.

Two years later, the Surgeon General's Consultant Group on Nursing issued a report "Toward Quality in Nursing" which recommended a national investigation to examine nursing education and high quality patient care.[59] The Consultant Group was convinced that the baccalaureate program should be the minimal requirement for nurses who will assume leadership positions, and because of the need for nursing leaders, they urged that priority be given to expansion of these programs.[60]

The group critized the lack of system, order, and coherence in nursing education as evidenced in three types of programs for nursing, stating that there is no clear differentiation as to the levels of responsibility for each type of graduate.[61]

They strongly leaned toward the collegiate program for nursing, urging that they "double their graduates, from the 1960 level of 4,000 to a total of at least 8,000 in 1970", while at the same time, establishing at least 30 or more new collegiate nursing schools.[62]

In 1965, both the American Nurses Association and the National League for Nursing presented their positions in regard to nursing education. The NLN advocated "community planning to implement the orderly transition of nursing education into institutions of higher learning in such a way that the flow of nurses into the community will not be interrupted."[63]

The ANA issued a position paper stating that "all nursing personnel be prepared within the general system of education".[64] Furthermore, it stated that "The education for all those who are licensed to practice nursing should take place in institutions of higher education."[65] No direction was given as to how to implement this position, although the state nurses' associations were urged to work toward this goal.

The 1970 report of the National Commission for the Study of Nursing and Nursing Education, An Abstract for Action, was a little more explicit in this regard. Although it supported the improvement of nursing education as proposed by the previous studies mentioned, it called for careful planning before closing any hospital school of nursing as well as before opening any collegiate program so as to assure "that an orderly transfer of functions and facilities have been developed."[66]

An Abstract for Action noted that the movement toward restructuring the patterns of nursing education was not merely a reflection of nursing leaders, but appeared to be also a reflection of changing times. The educational norm of today is moving well toward 14 years of general education.[67] So then would follow the replacement of hospital schools by college institutions.

But again, in order to be an effective education, organized planning has to take place. Strauss criticized the existing collegiate programs of nursing, stating that these are plagued by a number of problems: a variety of educational institutions and degrees, low academic prestige of nursing within the college or university; a heritage of affiliation with the professional schools of education; and the induced strain between practitioners who came from diploma schools and educators who are intent on eliminating any but collegiate schools of nursing.[68]

Other critics are suggesting that collegiate programs are producing "well-rounded nurse generalists" instead of "highly skilled specialists". They blame this on the seperation of college nursing education from nursing practice and direct patient care.[69]

The investigation of the National Commission also confirmed that diploma school graduates compared favorably with college students at the point where both groups began their careers in practice, and also that the differences within programs are at least as great as those between, and the similarities among all preparation programs are greater than the distinction.[70]

The National Commission recommended that certain characteristics and contributions from each of the existing kinds of institutions "should be preserved in the emergent, comprehensive system to be designed." For example, the hospital school has particular values which surely should be encouraged in the college programs: close relationships between faculty and students so often found; emphasis on student-patient involvement in care; provision of early exposure to clinical care; and identification of the curriculum with clinical excellence. Meanwhile, baccalaureate schools of nursing have excelled in the development of science related courses.[71]

An especially interesting part of the National Commission's investigation was an assessment of the affective values of student nurses from various types of nursing programs. The results seemed to indicate that students from the college nursing programs viewed their educational environment quite differently from those from the hospital school of nursing. The assessed values; general esteem for the program, academic enthusiasm, breadth of interest, and intrinsic motivation were all seen by the students as being more valued and stressed in the college environment as opposed to the students in the hospital diploma school.[72]

These were just some of the points included in the report. A series of recommendations were then proposed which supported the previous nursing education studies already discussed. Ultimately, the message of the National Commission was "that nursing education should be structured within the overall pattern of higher education, that is, within the collegiate institutions..."[73]

Despite the many studies and the push for collegiate nursing programs, there have been relatively minimal increases in the number of programs as well as in the number of collegiate nursing graduates. A good 50 years after the first proposal for change, nursing preparation is still taking place outside the collegiate system. At least 45% of all nursing institutions still exist apart from the college system.[74]

There are many factors which are probably directly responsible for the delayed movement for change. Among these are: strong opposition from various groups, lack of collegiate programs available, the lack of finances with which to build programs, and perhaps the feeling of individuals that they neither have the money nor the time to spend in such a program.

But specifically, who are the opponents and what are they opposing in regard to nursing education?

Dolan stated that some (no specific identification) opposed better education for nurses because they didn't think the average nurse needed it, that women with less education functioned satisfactorily and that intellectual women often made poor nurses.[75]

Jensen stated that many registered nurses feared that because of the proposed program they would be demoted to practical nurse status.[76] Simons noted that some physicians tended to oppose the upgrading of nursing education because they feared that this would decrease the supply of nurses.[77] Administrators were equally concerned about producing enough nurses.[78]

According to Bridgman, factors which have helped to retard the progress of collegiate schools, have been: 1) the belief that nursing is one and the same, from giving a bed bath to directing a school of nursing; 2) the fallacy that college training is an asset, but that training in the local hospital school is just as good, which has perpetuated the image of nursing as consisting mainly of technical skills.[79]

As far as organizational opposition to change, this has been evident since the early 1900's when at that time there was a fundamental split in the ranks of nursing over the proper location of nursing education.[80] However, the opposition seems to have grown much stronger since that time.

In 1971, the National League for Nursing Council of Diploma Programs voted non-support of seven of the twenty-two recommendations of the National Commission, which included all those which related to changing the institutional patterns in educating nurses,[81] even though the National League for Nursing Board of Directors had already endorsed the summary report and recommendations of the National Commission.[82]

Beside the division within the National League for Nursing itself, another strong force spoke out in opposition to the recommendations of the National Commission. Within the same year, the American Hospital Association Assembly of Hospital Schools of Nursing, vehemently opposed the call for phasing out hospital training schools and as a result adopted a resolution.

The following represents the voice of representatives of 325 hospital schools of nursing:

> "Be it resolved: That the Assembly of Hospital Schools of Nursing (Type VIII membership) of the American Hospital Association direct the Assembly's Governing Council to exert every possible influence to obtain from the American Hospital Association an official statement repudiating those groups and individuals who are alluding to the phasing out of diploma programs of nursing education."[83]

However, the proposition was allowed to die quietly since the governing council and board of the American Hospital Association had already gone on record as supporting "... the improvement academically and organizationally of all programs in nursing education... and the establishment of new programs associated with the systems of higher education...[84]

Meanwhile, the staff of the National Commission tried to arrange to meet with the executive committee of the Council of Diploma Programs to discuss areas of mutual interest and to consider the possibility of joint transitional projects, but in May of 1972, the Director of the Council of Diploma Programs conveyed that the committee was not interested, at least for some period of time. However, the National Commission supplied the hospital schools with copies of a position paper, "The Diploma Nurse, the Hospital School, and the National Commission." This document contained reasons for the Commission's recommendations and plans for implementation, while emphasizing that these did not repudiate the nursing schools nor their graduates, but merely were an attempt to develop a comprehensive nursing education program.[85]

So after many years, nursing is still trying to find itself, and is slowly and painfully trying to fit into the mainstream of America's higher education system. Upon what philosophy is this slow, but steady movement based? It seems that it should include both a basic belief about general education and about the nature of nursing.

In regard to general education, Heidgerken states that "all education...rests upon an understanding of the meaning and purpose of life, since it must take into account the nature and destiny of man and his relations with his fellow men..."[86]

Chioni believes that general education contributes to the development of the student as a person and as a professional since its goals are oriented more toward a development of cognitive skills and a personal philosophy, and the ability to make relevant judgements and to communicate ideas effectively.[87]

In a study entitled "Liberal Education", Mark Van Doren concludes that liberal education "should enable its possessor to recognize what is common to all men and to be equally sensitive to their differences".[88] Certainly in order to give something of herself, the nurse must first have something to give. It is the quality of the person giving the care that is probably the most important effect. Perhaps liberal education can in this way affect the quality of patient care.

It was in 1948 that Studebaker spoke about the increased need for a general education for nurses for three reasons: 1) Civilization is becoming increasingly complex; 2) Consequently, the interests and activities of individuals tend to become highly specialized; 3) This specialization has serious social consequences.[89] So it seems that general (or liberal) education is necessary for the "professional" nurse, if she is to be really effective in caring for individuals.

What kind of education does the nature of nursing itself demand? Since nursing has long concerned itself with giving care to human beings, communication is most important in recognizing and meeting the needs of persons. This is the nature of nursing, to care for individuals. Therefore the intellectual education of the nurse must give consideration to the continued development of the communication skills of the nursing student.[90]

Nursing does not care for human beings in a vacuum, therefore, it is important for the nurse always to be aware of the environment in which the person lives. A person cannot ever be separated from his environment. Therefore, it is important that the student nurse be grounded in concepts from the natural and social sciences and the humanities since these relate specifically to the "man-and-his-environment construct".[91]

Since it is the nature of nursing to care for each patient as a unique person, then the nurse must be able to adapt to differences. She may have to apply the routines she has learned with some modification depending upon the needs of the individual patient. To be able to meet these needs, she will have had to develop an inquiring mind and problem solving techniques.[92]

Where is the nursing student best given the opportunity to become a critical thinker who can adapt and execute good decisions, while being highly grounded in both technical and general knowledge? College would seem like a logical answer, particularly for general knowledge. However, it is questionable whether or not college can offer the nursing student enough practical experience. This seems to be the thinking of some even today. This was the concern even in 1936 - that the college may overemphasize nursing theory, as opposed to the hospital school of nursing which may have exaggerated the technical.[93]

Specifically, what does the nurse learn in a collegiate program that she can relate to her professional preparation?

Sociology and social anthropology may provide a foundation for understanding patients as social beings whose attitudes and reactions have been conditioned by their social environment. Psychology courses may assist the student in understanding individuals and their interrelationships.[94] The biological and physical sciences may offer a foundation for nutrition, pharmacology, medical principles, and nursing.[95]

These subjects are generally taught in the collegiate program, but whether or not they really provide a foundation depends upon the individual student - whether or not he/she is able to integrate and apply the basic principles of the material presented.

In looking back over their college education, four graduate nurses of 1970 talk about their education and how it relates to them as nurses.

1. "A liberal arts background as opposed to the scientific makes me personalize nursing. I have adequate skills, which I can continue to develop. The degree program gives you what is needed in intellectual development, the desire to learn, to solve problems, to think critically, and to make choices in certain situations."

2. "My education prepared me to be the kind of nurse that I want to be, a nurse actually and directly involved in giving patient care."

3. "The nurse with a baccalaureate degree wants greater freedom and independence in carrying out her nursing duties. She wants freedom to use what she has to give in terms of education, insight, initiative, and intelligence. She is taught this in college; she is denied this in the hospital."

4. "The degree nurse comes with anxieties and must accept the fact that she is going to be criticized by the nursing staff; she must feel confident that in time, she'll be able to develop her potential and even surpass what the diploma graduate is doing." [96]

The first three nurses sound quite positive about themselves, while the fourth one seems to doubt her adequacy. This seems to reflect both the many different collegiate programs, as well as the uniqueness of each student.

One author feels that the college offers a better quality and quantity of resources and a broad outlook, which is a definite addition to the practical values obtained in hospital life.[97] Also, the addition of public health, teaching and management skills, as well as the development of intellectual skills make a notable difference between the baccalaureate program and other programs.[98]

What is the significance of all this talk about nursing education? Where will it all end? At present, it appears to be moving slowly, but steadily in the direction of a bachelor's degree in nursing as the minimal preparation for the professional nurse.

However, the question is - will this transition ever be completed? What will ultimately happen to nursing as a "profession"?

ENDNOTES

[1] Lucie Y. Kelly, Dimensions of Professional Nursing. (New York: MacMillan, 1975), p. 167.

[2] Deborah M. Jensen, History and Trends of Professional Nursing, (St. Louis: C.V. Mosby, 1955), p. 41.

[3] Leo W. Simmons and Virginia Henderson, Nursing Research: A Survey and Assessment, (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1964), p. 11.

[4] Jensen, p. 41.

[5] Margaret Bridgman, Collegiate Education For Nursing, (New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1953), p. 41.

[6] Jensen, p. 41.

[7] Bridgman, p. 42.

[8] Jerome P. Lysaught, From Abstract Into Action, (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1973), p. 140

[9] Josephine A. Dolan, Goodnow's History of Nursing, (Philadelphia: W.B. Saunders, 1958), p. 298.

[10] Dolan, pp. 298-299.

[11] Simons, p. 8.

[12] Simons, p. 10.

[13] Jerome P. Lysaught, An Abstract For Action, (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1970), p. 36.

[14] Mary M. Roberts, American Nursing History and Interpretation, (New York: MacMillan, 1961), p. 21.

[15] Roberts, p. 22.

[16] Simons, p. 15.

[17] Simons, p. 15.

[18] Simons, p. 15.

[19] Simons, p. 15.

[20] Simons, p. 15.

[21] Dolan, p. 300.

[22] Donald P. Cottrell, "A Philosophy of Education", *American Journal of Nursing*, 40 (Aug., 1940), p. 299.

[23] Lysaught, *An Abstract for Action*, p. 32.

[24] Lysaught, *An Abstract for Action*, p. 33.

[25] Lysaught, *An Abstract for Action*, pp. 35-36.

[26] Simons, p. 54.

[27] Lysaught, *An Abstract for Action*, p. 38.

[28] Lysaught, *An Abstract for Action*, p. 41.

[29] Lysaught, *An Abstract for Action*, p. 41.

[30] ____________, *Facts About Nursing 74-75* (Missouri: ANA, 1976), pp. 3 and 55.

[31] Lysaught, *An Abstract for Action*, p. 40.

[32] Lysaught, *An Abstract for Action*, p. 163.

[33] Esther L. Brown, *Nursing As A Profession*, (New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1936), p. 8.

[34] Brown, *Nursing As A Profession*, p. 10.

[35] Lysaught, *An Abstract for Action*, pp. 29-30.

[36] ____________, "Organizational Control of Schools of Nursing Offering Basic Professional Programs", *American Journal of Nursing*, 47 (Feb., 1947), p. 116.

[37] Roberts, p. 63.

[38] Roberts, p. 65.

[39] Roberts, p. 65.

[40] Lysaught, *An Abstract for Action*, p. 37.

[41] Roberts, p. 66.

[42] ____________, "News From ANA Headquarters", American Journal of Nursing 61, (May, 1961) p. 75.

[43] Jensen, p. 255.

[44] Bonnie Bullough and Vera L., The Emergence of Modern Nursing, (New York: MacMillan, 1964), p. 177.

[45] Jensen, p. 255.

[46] Lysaught, From Abstract Into Action, p. 2.

[47] Lucille Petry, "Basic Professional Curricula in Nursing Leading to Degrees", Americal Journal of Nursing 37, (March 1937), p. 289.

[48] Virginia C. Conley, Curriculum and Instruction in Nursing, Boston: Little Brown, 1973), p. 136.

[49] Jensen, p. 288.

[50] Conley, p. 136.

[51] Lysaught, An Abstract for Action, p. 103.

[52] Esther Lucile Brown, Nursing For the Future, (New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1948), p. 138

[53] Bridgman, p. 125.

[54] Bridgman, p. 15.

[55] Conley, p. 556.

[56] Bridgman, p. 137.

[57] Bridgman, p. 185.

[58] Lysaught, An Abstract for Action, p. 37.

[59] Lysaught, From Abstract Into Action, p. 4.

[60] U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, pp. 33-35.

[61] U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, p. 33.

[62] U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, p. 55.

[63] Gerald Joseph Griffin and Joanne King, *Jensen's History and Trends of Professional Nursing*, (St. Louis: C.V. Mosby, 1969), p. 205.

[64] Griffin, p. 205.

[65] Lysaught, *An Abstract For Action*, p. 104.

[66] Lysaught, *An Abstract For Action*, p. 158.

[67] Lysaught, *An Abstract For Action*, pp. 104-105.

[68] Lysaught, *An Abstract For Action*, p. 37.

[69] Lysaught, *An Abstract For Action*, pp. 37-38.

[70] Lysaught, *From Abstract Into Action*, p. 139.

[71] Lysaught, *From Abstract Into Action*, p. 151.

[72] Lysaught, *From Abstract Into Action*, pp. 141-142.

[73] Lysaught, *From Abstract Into Action*, p. 2.

[74] Lysaught, *From Abstract Into Action*, p. 138.

[75] Dolan, p. 299.

[76] Jensen, p. 289.

[77] Simons, p. 16.

[78] Simons, p. 63.

[79] Bridgman, p. 79.

[80] Lysaught, *An Abstract For Action*, p. 30.

[81] Lysaught, *From Abstract Into Action*, p. 183.

[82] Lysaught, *From Abstract Into Action*, p. 144.

[83] Lysaught, *From Abstract Into Action*, p. 138.

[84] Lysaught, *From Abstract Into Action*, p. 139.

[85] Lysaught, *From Abstract Into Action*, pp. 144-145.

[86] Loretta E. Heidgerken, *Teaching and Learning in Schools of Nursing*, (Philadelphia: J.B. Lippincott, 1965), p. 103.

[87] Rose Marie Chioni, "A Curriculum Model for Preparing Tomorrow's Nurse Practitioners", *Challenge to Nursing Education...Preparation of the Professional Nurse for Future Roles*, (New York: NLN, 1971), p. 12.

[88] Virginia Henderson, *The Nature of Nursing*, (New York: MacMillan, 1966), p. 42.

[89] John W. Studebaker, "Nursing Education - General Education", *American Journal of Nursing*, 48 (Sept., 1948), p. 587.

[90] Heidgerken, p. 90.

[91] Chioni, p. 12.

[92] Henderson, pp. 45-46.

[93] Sr. M. Berenice Beck, "Hospital or Collegiate Schools of Nursing?", *American Journal of Nursing*, 36 (July 1936), p. 721.

[94] Bridgman, p. 147.

[95] Bridgman, p. 153.

[96] __________, "Summary of Panel Discussion on the Topic 'The Practice of Nursing as the New Practitioner Sees It'", *Challenge to Nursing Education...Clinical Roles of the Professional Nurse*, (New York: NLN, 1970), pp. 21-22.

[97] Dolan, p. 306

[98] Kelly, p. 174.

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THE CASE OF TELEVISION VERSUS READING

Renee Serokis

THE CASE OF TELEVISION VERSUS READING

From the paucity of literature written on television and reading by recognized people in the reading field as well as the infrequent integration of television as part of formal reading instruction, it appears safe to infer that educators tend to either ignore the potential of television for the reading classroom or hold it in low regard as a teaching medium. This oppostion to television in the classroom possibly reflects aversion to the so-called television addiction of today's children and/or the fear of usurpation of the teacher by television instruction and the attendant dehumanization of education. These biases often preclude any consideration of the advantages offered by television in education and particularly in remedial reading instruction. It is my contention the deleterious effects of television viewing notwithstanding that television and namely, The Electric Company is a potentially effective tool of remediation for certain reading disabilities.

Statistics and studies attest to the fact that television represents a pervasive force in the lives of children today. It is estimated that by the time a child is five years old he will have spent at least as much time watching television as a college student working towards a bachelor's degree will spend in classes over four years.[1] The average number of hours per week of television viewing by children cited in studies varies anywhere from twenty to fifty hours per week. Regardless of the disparity among the figures, it is generally conceded that television viewing absorbs more of a child's time than any other activity aside from sleeping.[2] Furthermore, it is generally accepted that the exhorbitant amount of time spent watching television cannot but affect the behavior of its "mesmerized audience."

Dwelling on the impact of television violence on children, research has not yet reached any conclusive findings on the long-term impact of television on the learning process. Observations of apparent passivity and anti-social behavior resulting from television viewing has given impetus to the theory that television interferes with the development of thinking in conjunction with the acquisition of complex language skills. For example, in the following description a bleak picture for future educational experiences is intimated for the inveterate watchers of television:

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[1] Dorothy H. Cohen, "Is TV a Pied Piper?" Young Children, (November 1974), p. 7.

[2] Gerald S. Lesser, Children and Television (New York, 1974), p. 19.

> His nursery school teacher reports that he is passive, noncreative, unresponsive to instruction, bored during play periods and possessed of an almost nonexistent attention span--in short, very much like his classmates. Next fall, he will officially reach the age of reason and begin his formal education. His parents are beginning to discuss their apprehensions--when they are not too busy watching television.[3]

Implicit in this description is the view that television is responsible for diminished creativty, increased passivity, non-responsiveness to instruction, and short attention spans, behaviors of concern to all teachers and particularly reading specialists.

These detrimental effects of television on the learning process are embodied in various hypotheses and research findings. According to child-development expert Dorothy Cohen at New York City's Bank Street College of Education, "television has taken away the child's ability to form pictures in his mind."[4] Her contention holds serious implications for the reading process which is an active, creative process involving the translation of print into visual images, feelings, and thoughts. The jeopardy to creativity associated with reading potential is reflected in the findings of a University of Southern California research team which determined that after three weeks of intensive television viewing, creativity dropped among 250 intermediate grade children.[5] Besides undermining creativity, television is suspected of reducing active interaction with people thereby robbing children of opportunities to develop language arts skills through speaking. In fact

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[3] "What TV Does to Kids," Newsweek, (February 21, 1977), p. 63.

[4] Ibid., p. 65.

[5] Cohen, p. 5.

Stanford University researcher, Paul Kaufman carries this argument further by maintaining that television religates children to the role of mere spectators and thus teaches passivity.[5] While the degree of spectatorship inferred by Kaufman is debatable, his ominous pronoucement is vaguely reminiscent of Ray Bradbury's portent of total human passivity in his book Fahrenheit 451. Bradbury depicts a society in which man regards books as anathema as opposed to television which is perceived as being more real than life. In Bradbury's society man lives most of his life vicariously through television programs. Many educators fear that children subject to the unmitigated influence of television are adopting life styles approximating those of characters in Fahrenheit 451.

In addition to diminished creativity and increased passivity, educators bemoan non-responsiveness to instruction and short-attention spans as effects of too much television. Many educators feel the pressure of competing with television in providing entertainment for students. It is difficult if not impossible for a teacher to measure up to The Electric Company with its flashy showbiz techniques made possible by the television medium. The argument that television is the agent responsible for student predilection for learning through gimmicks (i.e., instruction which is masked by potential appeal to students). Todays children's expectation of learning as an enjoyable experience rather than a tedious, boring, and failure-laden chore can be attributed to television. Gavriel Salomon's study of a population of Israeli children whose access to television was restricted but who viewed Sesame Street on a regular basis tends to substantiate this. His study (1974) showed these children exhibited lessened persistence to repetitive school-like tasks.[6] On the basis of this research, however, it may be erroneously concluded that television constitutes an impediment to learning. In the wake of extensive television viewing, students' needs and expectations with regard to learning have changed. A more tenable position would be that television interferes with students' learning only to the extent that educators fail to adapt their teaching methods and materials to meet changes in students' needs and expectations vis à vis learning. It behooves educators to devise "gimmicks" and utilize materials which will evoke student interest and involvement. Fast movement, humor, color, and diversity which television bombards unrelentlessly at children may be incorporated in methods and/or materials when appropriate. For example, The Electric Company employs animated letters which can serve as cues for students in reading printed words. The replication of these letters in written print is seemingly impossible, but there exists the means of communicating cues in print by employing different colors, printing styles, and letter sizes which could provide cues and/or engender interest by suggesting movement. The incorporation of these elements is reflected in the attached selection from The Bank Street/Houghton Mifflin Reading Series.[7]

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[5] Newsweek, p. 65.

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[6] Barbara R. Powles and Vivian M. Horner, Visual Literacy: Some Lessons from Children's Television Workshop (New York, 1974), p.4.

[7] Irma Simonton Black (ed.) Wake Sleeping Books (Boston, 1972), pp. 20-22.

FABLE
# of the
FOOLISH FROG

Retold by SEYMOUR REIT

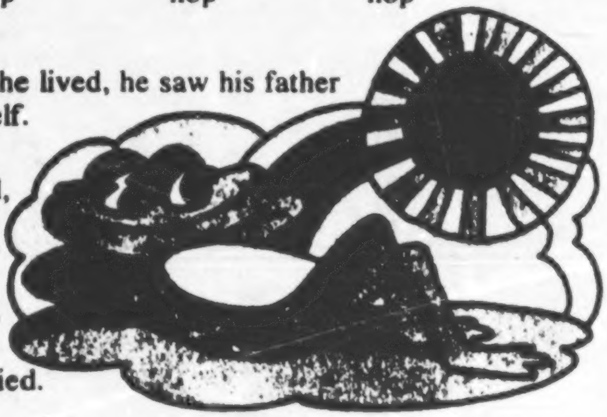
ONE DAY a baby frog

was hop hop hop hop hop hop hop hop hop hopping

through a meadow.
A cow came along,
munching the sweet meadow grass.
The little frog had never seen
a cow before.
He became very *frightened,* so he

hop hop hop hop hop hop hop hop hop hopped

home as *fast* as he could go.
When he reached the pond where he lived, he saw his father
sitting on a lily pad, sunning himself.



"Pop," the baby frog said,
"I just saw the biggest animal
in the *whole world!*"

The old bullfrog brrupped.
"Bigger than me?"
"Much bigger," the little frog replied.

The bullfrog was very *foolish.*
Also very *vain*. He began
to puff out his chest.

pping

opped

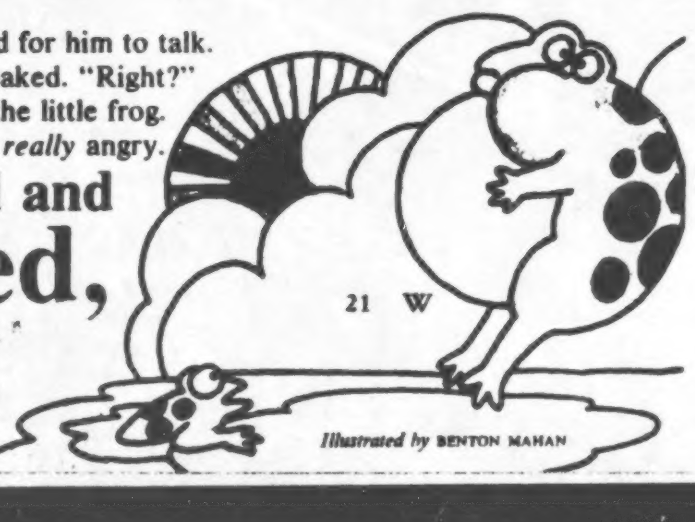
hest.

He puffed until he was quite
swollen.
"That animal," he croaked,
"couldn't have been bigger than *this!*"

"Yes it was, Father. *Much* bigger." The foolish frog began to get angry.

He puffed some more. He puffed until he swelled up like a fat frog-shaped

All that puffing made it hard for him to talk.
"Now I'm the biggest," he squeaked. "Right?"
"Wrong," said the little frog.
This made the foolish bullfrog *really* angry.
So he **puffed and puffed,**



21 W

Illustrated by BENTON MAHAN

got bigger

and bigger

fatter

& fatter

until all at once

he burst

into lots
of very
small pieces

22 W

Which goes to prove that being foolish and vain isn't very good for frogs. Or people, either.

The apparent need for sensitivity to television's impact on students lends credibility to the argument that television has created a new learning process for children. Salomon's assertion that "the development of new technology leads, after a certain period of time to the development of a new symbol system which partly at least, is uniquely suited to that technology"[8] suggests that students' adherence to the symbol system peculiar to television may be a factor in their learning process. Children internalizing the auditory/visual stimuli of television as a means of processing information may generalize this to classroom learning including reading. While television entails a visual/auditory symbol system, reading is predicated on a letter-symbol process. Television provides visual representations as opposed to reading which necessitates the creation of mental representations. The logical extension of this reasoning is that a reading disability could arise if a child fails to make the appropriate transition from the television symbol system to that of the written page. In such a reading disability television could serve to bridge the gap between the two symbol systems. For example, television zoom-in techniques could be used to teach visual discrimination, a skill which students could transfer from the television screen to the written page. The potential of visual representations of television for fostering corresponding mental representations in students exists.[9] It seems that television may very well be part of the solution to the problem which it has created.

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[8] Barbara R. Powles and Vivian M. Horner, p. 7.

[9] Lesser, p. 84.

Television possesses other advantages which qualify it for serious consideration as a potential solution to educational problems. Paramount is television's ability to hold children's attention even at its seemingly dullest moments. Children regard television as entertaining. Obviously in the light of the fact they spend so much time watching television, children are accustomed to being entertained a good deal of their lives. The conflict children experience once they enter school can be anticipated. Traditionally a distinction has been drawn by educators between play which is supposed to be fun and learning which should be work. The notion of learning being enjoyable is perhaps accepted in theory by some educators but not usually incorporated into classroom instruction. Many students complain incessantly of being bored by school and become so alienated that their well-developed escape mechanisms enable them to avoid learning in school in some instances. This type of behavior is consistent with Freud's "pleasure principle" in which Freud claims there exists a universal tendency for man to avoid pain and find pleasure which accounts for man's tendency to remember pleasant events while forgetting unpleasant events.[10] Freud's principle holds significance for the learning process in that it suggests that learning as an enjoyable experience can facilitate the retention of the material to be learned. It is also conceivable that the incorporation of television in instruction would supply strong motivation to learn for some children.[11] Freud's "pleasure principle" can be applied to another quality peculiar to television--the nonpunitive nature of television.

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[10] Joyce McLellan, The Question of Play (New York, 1970), p. 16.

[11] Robert L. Hilliard and Hyman H. Field, Television and the Teacher (New York, 1976), p. 12.

Television allows children to make mistakes without fear of criticism which may be accompanied either by humiliation or perceived withdrawl of the teacher's affection, both of which have potential for interfering with learning. Perhaps the nonpunitive nature of television as well as its entertainment appeal contribute to Sesame Street's legacy--its success in attracting and holding large audiences despite its obvious educational intentions.[12] Sesame Street as well as The Electric Company have proven that education and entertainment can be effectively combined to obtain audience favor.

The positive attributes of television tempered by its negative attributes give rise to controversy which surrounds the adoption of television as a solution to reading problems. The argument raised specifically against the use of television in reading instruction is as follows: A child who spends 20-28 hours per week watching television and only 7 hours reading outside of school[13] already spends a disproportionate amount watching television. Furthermore, it is argued that television appears to divert students from reading rather than encouraging them to read. Yet studies conducted do not draw any signficant correlations between hours of television viewing and hours of voluntary reading. It appears that poor readers have less interest in reading than in television in contrast to good readers who watch considerable television but tend to spend more time reading (H. M. Robinson and Weintraub, 1973).[14] In other words a child who dislikes reading will be more likely to amuse himself watching television, while a child who is an avid reader will watch television but allot time for reading in his schedule.

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[12] Lesser, p. 234.

[13] Albert J. Harris and Edward R. Sipay, How to Increase Reading Ability (New York, 1976), p. 518.

[14] Ibid., p. 519.

Since television is so attractive to poor readers, it stands to reason that it could be employed to get these children interested in reading. Attempting to accomplish just that, The Electric Company was created in 1971 by the Children's Workshop as a supplement to classroom instruction in reading. The five-day-a-week, half-hour television show utilizes animation, music, sound effects, humor, and repetition to reach a target audience of primarily second, third, and fourth grade children in the lower half of their class in reading achievement. As described by David Connell, Vice President of the Workshop, the task facing those involved in The Electric Company including educators, psychologists and entertainers was ". . . to get print on the screen in a lot of different ways so people would want to watch it, and that meant electronic gadgetry."[15] Animation pop-up techniques not only amuse but also effectively depict the left-to-right sequence of print corresponding to the temporal sequence of speech and depict the representation of speech sounds by written symbols. In fact this capability of television has been regarded as television's greatest potential for teaching reading.[16] Underlying this potential is the property of visual media to ". . . translate(ing) nonvisual facts into visual ones, and thereby giving them sensory concreteness."[17] For example, in one of The Electric Company shows, the word "bee" appears on the screen. The letters are manipulated electronically to move in a bee-like manner, and buzzing is heard in the background. The abstractness of the printed word "bee" is thus transformed into a concrete concept by means of motion and sound which may be more impressive to children than static materials. To help children to grasp concepts of decoding, reading for meaning, using the context clues, and syntax, The Electric Company employs various "gimmicks" including electronic gadgetry as well as real-life skits.

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[15] Martin Mayer, "The Electric Company: Easy Reader and a Lot of Other Hip Teachers," The New York Times Magazine (January 28, 1973), p. 15

[16] Joan T. Feely, Television and Reading in the Seventies (New York, 1974), p.

[17] Powles and Horner, p. 6.

The question arises how effective are these attention-getting techniques in teaching children to read. An evaluation of the first two years of the show conducted for the Children's Television Workshop by the Educational Testing Service showed positive effects of the show on the target audience when the program was viewed as a supplement to classroom reading instruction.[18] In light of this study The Electric Company may be considered of limited value in teaching children to read. The program, of course, does not purport to teach children to read but to serve as supplemental instruction. Television can be categorized with teaching materials which are rendered worthwhile by virtue of teacher effectiveness and pupil preparation. A teacher integrating The Electric Company as a part of formal instruction will introduce the skills being taught before student viewing of the show and after the program will provide follow-up activities whereby students can apply these skills. This teacher can realistically expect her students to benefit from the program, whereas a teacher who turns on the television set for a break

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[18] Natalie L. Sproull and Others, Reading Behaviors of Young Children Who Viewed "The Electric Company" A Final Report. (New York, 1976), p. 8.

from classroom routine cannot expect students to derive much more than pleasure from the program. With respect to the need for classroom integration, the ETS evaluation of The Electric Company points to an overriding limitation of television--the inherent lack of feedback and two-way interaction. The lack of feedback is manifested by the fact that the program is not sequential in which one day's lesson on the show is related to the following and previous day's shows. Furthermore, the pace of The Electric Company is fast to hold children's attention as evidenced by short allotment of time for each teaching segments. For example, six and a half minutes are set aside for a given consonant or consonant blend; 140 seconds is allotted for teaching children that ee and ea make the same sound.[19] Clearly, the pace of the television show cannot be adjusted to individual learning rates. Traditional teaching is markedly different from this approach in that it strives to control the level and pace of teaching materials in a progression of steps which is appropriately reinforced.[20] On the basis of the ETS evaluation, it appears that The Electric Company providing an alternative approach to learning reading skills may play a role in some students' reading remediation.

No amount of derision or criticism of television will result in its abolishment. At best it will lead to better television programming for children. Because of the pervading and enduring presence of television in children's lives, there is a need for educators especially reading specialists to determine appropriate ways of contending with the impact of television on children's learning processes. Is television guilty of wrongdoing? In the case of television versus reading the verdict is as follows: while television is guilty of contributing to behaviors which may interfere with the acquisition of reading skills, television may also serve as part of the solution to certain reading disabilities by breaking down the barriers between the two symbol systems that of reading and television and by communicating certain concepts not as effectively described by other teaching materials. The strong possibility exists that a program such as _The Electric Company_ may engender interest in learning which may be transferred to reading. It cannot be guaranteed that _The Electric Company_ will benefit all disabled readers, but the arguments and evidence are strong that it can. If this television program is combined with effective teaching, it has the potential to help certain disabled readers. Hopefully, _The Electric Company_ will prove to be so successful that in years to come reading specialists will rely more on television in remediation and will have access to different programs geared to meet various reading levels and needs. The case then isn't really television versus reading. Television and reading are not in diametrical opposition but rather are intricately interrelated despite all objections. The question isn't should television be used in reading remediation but how should television be used in reading remediation.

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[19] Martin Mayer, p. 24.

[20] Lesser, p. 246.

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